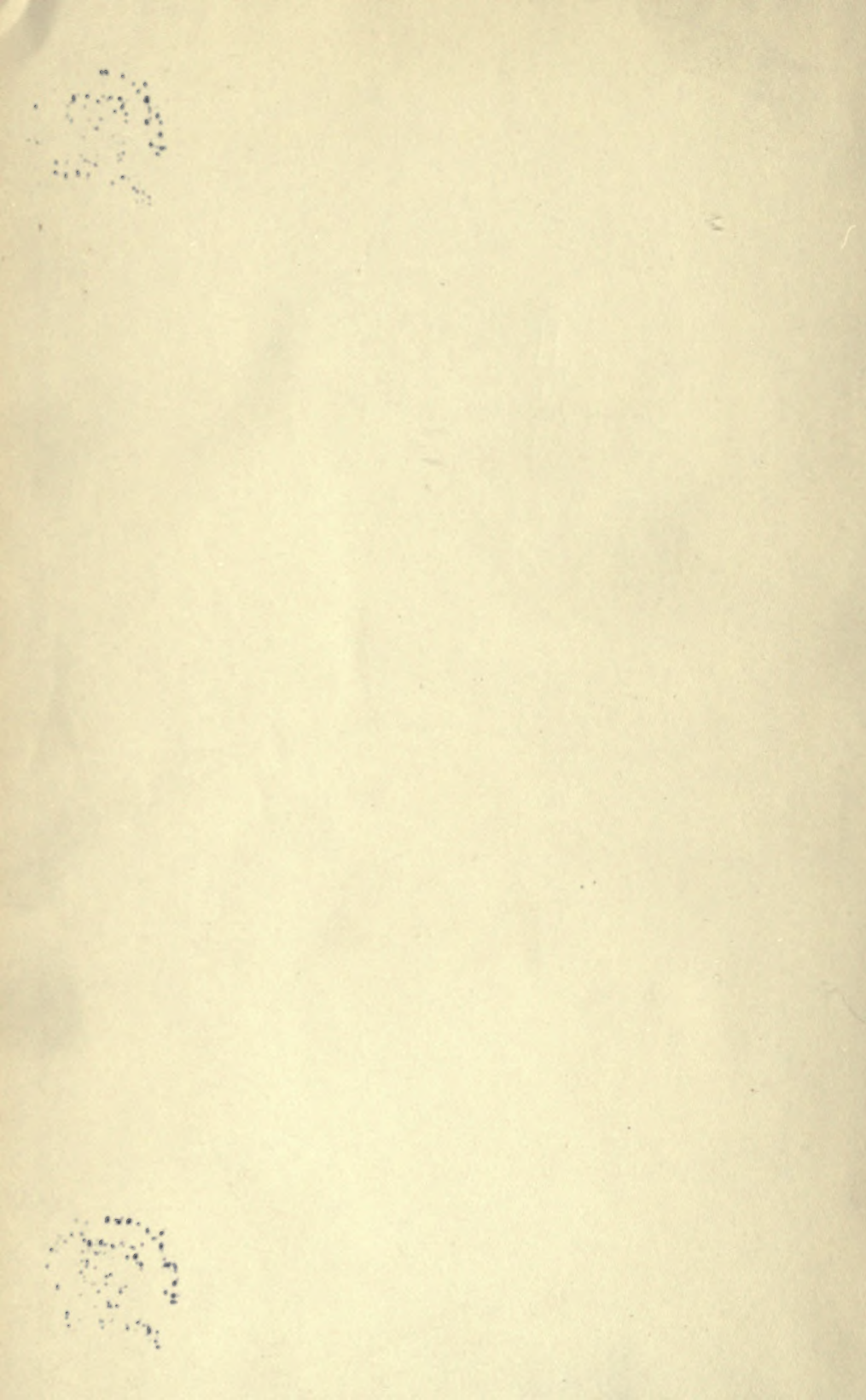
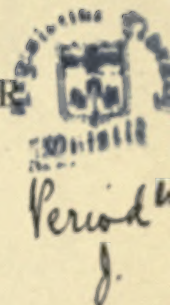


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RECONSTRUCTION AFTER THE WAR



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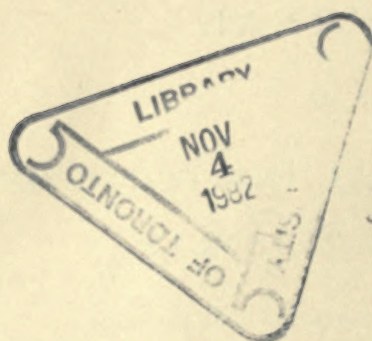
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FOREWORD

For students of the social sciences the word of the hour is Reconstruction. The problems of the present are those of war; but the war, at least to America and her allies, is a war for an abiding peace. No matter how great may be the victory, it will be defeat to the best hopes of humanity if the conditions that have fruited in this war be left unchanged. In no small part those conditions are social. Their reform calls for the best effort of us all.

Though the end of the war may yet be far, there is no time to lose. Once before, a half-century ago at the end of a great war, that word Reconstruction was familiar to American ears; and even those who applaud on the whole the measures for which it stands are frank to deplore the errors of its haste. Happily today the wisest among us are already busy with the task. In these last months, while the members of our Institute were at work on their papers, a score of British thinkers, headed by an administrator so eminent as Earl Cromer, gave to the press a volume of studies on "After-War Problems." "In the hope," says the editor, Mr. William Harbutt Dawson, "of contributing toward the great task of after-war reconstruction this volume has been written." "We are told of what Germany is to be compelled to do, of the capitulations and penalties which are to be required of her as the price of peace; . . . yet there are thousands of Englishmen, and they not the least patriotic, who are quite as eager to know what England herself is prepared to do in order to help in and sustain the coming reign of peace and goodwill."

Has America less need for such a sequel of victory? And if the war end not in victory, but in a truce, her need will be the greater. For, if the war is to be fought over, the supreme aim must meanwhile be national efficiency. That efficiency cannot come from makeshifts. It will not come from adoption of the methods of autocracy. If democracy is to outlive autocracy, it can be only because her outcome proves itself a sounder national character, a truer national weal.

To such a reconstruction may the addresses of our annual meeting and the papers here printed with them be a contribution. Toward such a reconstruction point in many ways the activities reported from our members. In such a reconstruction, let us hope, our Institute as a whole will have its share.

GEORGE L. BURR

Chairman Publication Committee

ANNUAL DINNER

The Annual Dinner of the Institute followed by the Awarding of Medals, was held on the evening of January 18, 1918 at the Hotel Astor, New York City.

OPENING REMARKS BY PROFESSOR IRVING FISHER

This afternoon we had a business meeting and a very interesting scientific meeting afterward. The business of this evening may seem less business and more ornament, and yet I venture to say that the real serious business of this Institute is that which we transact this evening. The giving of recognition for merit is, I believe, one of the most serious businesses of life. It is especially important in a democracy where there is an absence of artificial distinctions and therefore all the more appreciation of distinctions of genuine merit, and in wartime particularly.

This Institute, aside from universities, is the only important organization in the country that does this particular kind of business. Our sister republic across the water has done it and does do it through two great institutions. I will first call upon one of our distinguished vice-presidents who has just come from the Institut de France, who has just himself received honor from that Institute and who brings to us a message. I introduce to you Dr. John H. Finley.

DR. JOHN H. FINLEY READS A MESSAGE FROM THE INSTITUT DE FRANCE

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: The sole honor that I enjoy tonight from the Institut de France is that I am permitted to carry its message to the National Institute of Social Sciences.

In the early days in that valley in which I was born, the valley which is now called the "Valley of Democracy," among the first comers were men from France, rather rough men

they were, not entitled to admission, most of them, to such a body as this, men who were called *coureurs de bois*, "runners of the woods." They were the ambassadors from the one world to the other, from the court to the people of the forests. I am here tonight as a *coureur de bois*, or perhaps I would better say as a *coureur de mer*, "a runner of the sea."

I would not have the analogy proceed so far as to intimate that you are in the same category as those aborigines to whom the original *coureurs de bois* brought their messages. They do not now have to go so far as they then had to go to reach savages. There was one who came with the *coureur de bois*, a priest, who discovered the river on whose banks I had the fortune to be born, a priest who lived at Laon. I climbed the cliff a little before the war to find at the top of it the place where that priest was born. He came to America to carry the gospel of Christ, the doctrine of His meekness, to savages in America. Well, there are savages now occupying the place where he was born, and the savagery of the people who then occupied America is not comparable with that of the men who now occupy Laon. And the savages who occupied America had no civilization back of them—there is that to be said for them.

Well, I wish that Père Marquette were alive to carry his messages to those who now occupy Laon, but since he cannot be, we must do our part.

I have brought, and I shall content myself with reading, the message that I was asked to carry from the President of the Institut de France, Monsieur Boutroux, who is well known in this country. He is the head of the Fondation Thiers, the great graduate school occupying the palace that was left by Thiers. The scholars are all scattered now, and the palace is filled with wounded soldiers.

I shall read it not in the original, but in the translation which I have made. The letter is addressed to the courier, because one is not permitted to carry out letters addressed to others. The courier is not identified—he is simply one who was sent by you, with your message and has returned:

"I am in receipt of the precious token of sympathy which the National Institute of Social Sciences has commissioned you to transmit to the Institut de France. I beg our American brethren to accept our most cordial thanks and also the

assurance of our admiration and our love for the great nation so generously faithful to the spirit of '76. I shall transmit the message of the National Institute of Social Sciences to the full assembly of the Institut de France, which will meet on the 3d of July next."*

On the very day of the presentation of this salutation to the Institute, (it was the 3d of July) there was sent by cable from the Institut de France to the President of the United States a message which I have here in the hand of the President of the Institute. I am not sure that President Wilson has received it in this form; if not, I shall feel under obligation to give it to him. Otherwise, I shall put it with this letter, Mr. President, to remain in your archives. The letter is as follows:

"On this day, when the United States of America celebrate the anniversary of those high achievements of valor through which they have become a free and independent country, the Institute of France, meeting in full assembly, offers fitting homage to the great President who has unceasingly sought to receive from the soul of the American people his inspiration, and who has realized in the fullest sense for the welfare of the United States the sublime aims set forth in the Declaration of 1776.

"Against a power as formidable as insolent, a power that, violating all human rights and principles, meant to organize for its own profit the whole moral and material world, the United States of America, considering the principle in whose name they had made their revolution, a principle recognizing the sacred character of human rights, have come to know that a policy of isolation is no longer possible, and the organization of the world as Germany sought to bring about must have its foundation in liberty and not in despotism.

"The time has come for a confession of its faith and fulfillment of its duty. A voice has been heard, 'Thou must,' and Young America has answered, 'I can.'

"Already the American soldiers are on French soil and have joined the Allies. The Atlantic is no more.

*The original reads:

Je reçois de précieux témoignage de sympathie que l' "Institut National des Sciences Sociales" vous a donné mission de transmettre à l'Institut de France. Je prie nos confrères américains d'agréer nos remerciements les plus cordiaux, ainsi que l'assurance de notre admiration et de notre amour pour la grande nation, si généreusement fidèle à l'esprit de '76.

Je ferai part du message de l'Institut National des Sciences Sociales à l'Assemblée plénière de l'Institut de France, qui se réunira le 3 Juillet prochain.

Agrez, je vous prie, cher Collègue et ami, l'assurance de mon fidèle et profond attachement.

(Signed) EM. BOUTROUX,

Président de l'Institut de France.

"Honor to the Nation that does not want to enjoy liberty any longer unless all nations, large and small, can have it.

"Brothers of America, glory to you who rejoice in mingling—as formerly—your colors with ours for the defense of our common ideal! If those can be strong who fight for the slavery of the world and of themselves, why should not those who are ready to bring all sacrifices for right and liberty be invincible?

(Signed)

EMILE BOUTROUX

President

A. THOMAS

A. D'ARSONVAL

TH. DUBOIS

E. D'EICHTHAL

Vice-Presidents

ETIENNE LAMY

Secretary

THE AWARDING OF MEDALS

Gold Medals were awarded to WILLIAM J. MAYO, M.D., HONORABLE HERBERT C. HOOVER and HENRY P. DAVISON, LL.D.

Presentation Medals were awarded to FRANCIS GANO BENEDICT, SC.D., HONORABLE JOHN A. KINGSBURY, LEO S. ROWE, LL.D., THOMAS W. SALMON, M.D., and PROFESSOR CHARLES-E. A. WINSLOW.

THE MEDAL TO FRANCIS GANO BENEDICT, SC.D.

PRESENTATION ADDRESS BY DR. EUGENE L. FISK

In 1776 the King of France awarded a gold medal to a young worker in science, Antoine Laurent Lavoisier, for his plans for illuminating the streets of Paris. Lavoisier illuminated more than the streets of Paris. The revolution that he created in scientific thought and method was probably as far reaching in its influence on humanity as the political revolution in the bloody shambles of which he nobly perished.

It is a far cry from Lavoisier with his balance, laying the foundations of the exact quantitative method that governs modern science, to Benedict with his Respiration Calorimeter, Tachistoscope, Kymograph, String Galvanometer, Electrocardiograph, Plethysmograph, Sphygmograph, Sphygmomanometer, and complex electro-photographic apparatus the mere names of which suggest a campaign of frightfulness against ignorance of what we are and of what happens to the human body under the usage that we give it.

It will pay us, however, to take a brief glance backward and sketch an efficiency curve of science during that period. From the high peak created by Lavoisier there were rising and falling curves; low peaks of ignorance and reaction when even the leaders in science fought the truth; upward curves showing struggle toward the light by men like Schleiden and Schwann, Von Baer, Müller and others, preparing the way for that Himalayan peak of transcendent genius in the late fifties, Pasteur with his test tube. Laboratory workers these men,

seeking the basic formulae by which scientific men may clarify thought and substitute demonstrated truth for mere authority or opinion. In no branch of science has there been greater need for such formulae than in the science of medicine. In no branch of science has the mere weight of authority had so paralyzing an effect, practically arresting the progress of scientific medicine and surgery until the time of Pasteur. Not only was the causation of epidemic disease shrouded in obscurity, but the causation of chronic disease was less studied than truly fantastic methods of drug therapy directed to cure what it is the sacred duty of science to prevent. Jenner's employment of vaccination against smallpox was a bright spot in this history. But he brought no basic formulae to guide us in the prevention of other epidemic diseases. From the time of Pasteur and through his researches in bacteriology, the conquest of epidemic disease was rapid. Surgery, which had been practically at a standstill since the days of Larrey of Napoleon's staff, who had glimmerings of the truth, likewise made giant strides, after an interval of costly skepticism. During the Franco-Prussian War, infection was literally sown by the surgeons as they passed through the wards. During the Civil War, those who received first aid and had their wounds probed by the surgeon, fared worse than those more fortunately neglected. But the truth moved on, and the anti-septic surgery of Lister, built upon the knowledge of Pasteur, developed into aseptic surgery, which is working surgical miracles in the present war.

In these days, no surgeon can work intelligently without the laboratory, and in the highly developed method of Carrel we even have a curve of expected healing with which to compare the curve of actual healing and note when it is necessary to interfere and bring the curve to the normal point. Thus we see that the laboratory worker placed in the hands of scientific medicine the instruments and the formulae which the bedside practice of many centuries failed to provide. It is the laboratory that has led medicine out of its mediaevalism, that has enabled medicine to reform its line of attack on the principles of prevention rather than semi-mystical cure.

I have referred to the splendid achievements of surgery which reach their highest development in the present war; to

the conquest of epidemic disease, which in any community is simply a financial problem, a question of adequate appropriation for public health work. But there is a huge gap, a weak spot in scientific medicine's battle front, representing the chronic diseases, premature old age and manifold disabilities and handicaps that deform life and limit man's capacity for living and for enjoying life. The neglect to take into consideration the obvious truth that there is no law of mortality, that man's physical state is conditioned by his environment as well as heredity, that changes in his environment and his living customs may profoundly influence not only his span of life, but his mental and physical equipment for living, that all of the physical disabilities from which he suffers can be related to physical causes and are therefore subject, at least in some measure, to control and modification, is responsible for this weakness. We are however, gradually gaining knowledge of the physico-chemical working of the body and deriving formulae upon which to base methods of control, means by which we may go systematically about the work of governing the human mechanism.

During the past twenty years, the work of Francis Gano Benedict along these lines stands out as fundamental. His monographs are milestones in our progress toward the substitution of exact knowledge for mere opinion. It is impossible here adequately to touch upon his manifold achievements, but I will say, as most of you are probably aware, his most valuable contributions have represented studies of human metabolism, of the fuel requirements of the human body under varying conditions. He has studied the infant, the athlete, man and woman vegetarian and meat-eater, rest metabolism and work metabolism, and latterly he has planned his notable work on the effects of alcohol on certain nervous functions—a work, described by him as only a beginning, yet monumental in its scope.

As Benedict truly says: "There have been many exhaustive systematic studies regarding the metabolism of fats, proteins and carbohydrates, yet in spite of the fact that several million people derive more of their energy from alcohol than from protein, there has been lacking a complete and exhaustive laboratory study of the physiological action of alcohol on man." Properly characterizing this as a misfortune to science,

the nutrition laboratory of the Carnegie Institute arranged to classify the lines of research, and a tentative plan was laid out after consultation by Benedict, either personally or by mail, with most of the world's leading workers in physiological research. The psychological programme was outlined by Prof. Raymond Dodge and certain phases of the work were carried out in collaboration with Dr. F. Lyman Wells. The report of the experiments carried out under the psychological programme and published in 1915 is nothing less than epoch-making. Benedict, like Herbert Spencer in his formulation of the philosophy of evolution, proceeded to do the work with the instruments at hand and with the advice and counsel of active workers in physiology, but did not attempt to digest the enormous literature on alcohol, nor was he governed in any way by preconceived notions or theories.

Recently an eminent worker in medicine and public health wrote me that "he was not aware that alcohol was under investigation, or that it was a subject susceptible of scientific investigation." I replied that I thought alcohol was just as legitimate a subject for investigation as cheese or fat or carbohydrates. It was in this spirit that Benedict specifically addressed the work of the laboratory to the investigation of alcohol, and it is for this reason that the results are so extremely valuable in the interpretation of evidence derived from other sources.

Perhaps the statistician shares equally with the laboratory worker the malevolent regard of a certain class of loose thinkers and men who dislike to have anything measured, especially anything relating to human indulgences or emotions; such men would rather believe a whole lot of things that aren't so than have a mathematical demonstration of the truth. Benedict's well-tested evidence, derived from carefully controlled experiments with the latest scientific equipment and according to highly approved methods that had been previously submitted to the world's best authorities, follows rather closely the appearance of statistical studies bearing upon the apparent influences of moderate alcohol drinking upon large masses of lives. This statistical evidence was derived from the investigations of the Medico-Actuarial Committee, representing forty-three life insurance companies of the United States and

covering two million men. This testimony was along the same lines revealed by British life insurance companies and showed very emphatically that high mortality always followed the flag of alcohol. The testimony of the British figures had been resisted for many years by actuarial authorities in this country; but, following the confirmation of these figures by American researches and the accumulation of evidence from the laboratory showing the bodily disturbances created by even moderate doses of alcohol, the President of the Actuarial Society of America took a very firm stand as to the validity of the evidence pointing to the adverse effect of even moderate drinking upon large masses of lives. Benedict's investigations clinched the evidence of the effect of alcohol on the nervous system and definitely established the total effects of alcohol as essentially narcotic and depressing, even in doses equivalent to those usually consumed by the average drinker. His findings were in some important details different from those of the Kraepelin school and his experiments seemed to establish that the first effect of alcohol is on the lower reflex arcs of the spinal cord. The question of the effect of alcohol on the highest brain functions is yet to be investigated and more fully worked out, and Benedict rightly states the difficulty of that line of research.

One of the most interesting comments in his report is the suggestion that the theory heretofore held by many, that alcohol's first effect is upon the highest brain functions, is not consistent with a rational idea of the place of those functions in controlling the human body. For the same reason that the higher brain functions are less susceptible to fatigue, they are most resistant to such an influence as alcohol, though finally coming under its influence as the lower functions are released. At least, there is some warrant for drawing these conclusions from the evidence and this serves only to emphasize the danger of moderate alcoholic indulgence. While what Benedict terms the power of auto-genic re-enforcement of the higher brain functions which enable a man to resist intoxication when conditions and environments impel him to resist, it is probable that under most conditions of drinking this power of auto-genic re-enforcement is not invoked and the higher brain functions come more rapidly under the influence of alcohol than was

evident in the experiments. We know from these experiments, however, that while a man may persuade himself that he is completely sober, there is actually a condition of narcotization or intoxication of important protective reflexes and a distinctly unfavorable effect on the circulation from moderate doses of alcohol, and that these conditions must necessarily constitute adverse factors in the struggle for existence and may serve to explain, together with the factor of increasing alcoholic indulgence, at least a part of the extra mortality experienced by life insurance companies among those classified as moderate drinkers.

At the present time, the question of the effect of alcohol on the human body, on food conservation, on the defensive qualities of the nation, is one of extraordinary and pressing importance. There is no difference of opinion with regard to gross intoxication, but there has been much difference of opinion with regard to so-called moderate drinking; there is especially needed, definite and unimpeachable evidence from the laboratory as to the effect of moderate doses of alcohol on the human body, in order that we may interpret correctly the statistical evidence available as to its effect on masses of men.

Benedict has therefore rendered a striking service to this country in making such evidence available in this crisis. Few people remember the medal conferred upon Lavoisier by the king. There are men who are remembered, not for the titles, dignities or insignia that have been conferred upon them but wholly for the work they have done. Even a golden statue could add nothing to the world's estimate of their achievement. It is this type of man, devoted to pure science, who works without regard to possible formal honors or awards. It may be asked, therefore, why make such awards, why offer to such men medals, degrees or honors which add no jot or tittle to the significance of their work. I think the justification lies in this, that even the most devoted worker in pure science, wholly devoid of ambition for such formal recognition, may yet accept such testimonials as a friendly grasp of the hand extended by those who have at heart the advancement of science and the welfare of the human race and who find inspiration and hope for carrying forward their own work in thus expressing their feelings.

It is in this spirit that the National Institute of Social Sciences offers to you, Professor Benedict, a medal awarded for your research work on alcohol, awarded not only for the scientific value of the contribution you have made, but because of the spirit in which it was carried on, because of a conviction that you are working, not to establish any theory or belief, but that you are simply seeking the truth because you know that the truth shall make us free.

THE REPLY BY PROFESSOR BENEDICT

MR. PRESIDENT, DR. FISK, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: In our laboratory notebooks, particularly when alcohol has been given to subjects, we find the following records—"feeling of warmth and great flushing of the face." I find myself, in spite of a non-alcoholic evening, undergoing the process of a "so-called" dry jag.

As I really find myself in a false position when I think of these kind words of Dr. Fisk and realize what this token means, I can think only of the factors that have made possible the work for which this stands as the representation.

Give to any man a good constitution, an ability to get along with his neighbors, give him the resources of the Carnegie Institution at Washington and the good friendship of our eminent friend (Mr. Elihu Root) here at my left, give him as associates five or six of the best men in this country, Dr. Thorne M. Carpenter, Professor Raymond Dodge, Professor H. Monmouth Smith and Professor Walter R. Miles, and there is really nothing left to be done.

THE MEDAL TO THE HONORABLE JOHN A. KINGSBURY PRESENTATION SPEECH BY DR. HENRY MOSKOWITZ

The National Institute of Social Sciences honors one of the nation's most constructive social workers by honoring John A. Kingsbury. As Commissioner of Public Charities during the past four years, he raised the standard of public relief to such a state of efficiency that he has made permanent contributions in the field of public philanthropy. Mr. Kingsbury brought to the complicated problems of public

dependency a trained intelligence, vision, courage and with it all, a sympathy which brought results.

He applied the insight of the modern social conscience to the problems of the Department of Charities, and made distinct contributions to four of the most important problems of that department.

First, he enforced the sound policy that the contributions of a city government to private institutions must be carefully checked, not only from the standpoint of financial administration, but also on behalf of the twenty-two thousand wards of the city which those institutions housed and cared for. Moreover, he maintained that it was the city's responsibility also to rear, educate and give those children the best which modern standards of education and recreation and institutional management have developed. The formulation of these standards and their enforcement constitute one of the most permanent contributions to the management of public institutions.

But Mr. Kingsbury's progressive mind led him to a second contribution of equal importance. Many of you remember the historic conference at the White House under the auspices of President Roosevelt, when the nation's child-caring authorities met and decided that orphan children, dependent children, can be best reared in a home where the foster mother is; that the training of a home, its normal experiences of the influences of home life and mother love make for more effective rearing of children than the best of institutions. With the aid of public-spirited citizens, John A. Kingsbury demonstrated the success of an experiment which provided for the home care of some dependent children of New York, and the time is not far distant when the vast majority of the twenty-two thousand dependent children now housed in institutions will be cared for by mothers in foster homes.

And, thirdly, John A. Kingsbury made a very distinct contribution of the problem of the care of homeless men. He found a lodging house which had been just a domicile and a shelter for the homeless. He made out of it a human repair shop; for now when these outcasts of society come to the lodging house, they are physically examined, medically cared for and given an opportunity to do the work they are fit for.

John A. Kingsbury and his aides have done other constructive work in the field of public philanthropy. I need only, in conclusion, refer to the conditions on Randall's Island which Mr. Kingsbury found. It was a loathsome heritage of two thousand subnormal and defective children inadequately housed, ill-fed, brutally treated. Mr. Kingsbury, despite the most insidious opposition of powerful forces, with the support of his courageous chief, ex-Mayor Mitchell of New York, dismissed the reactionary superintendent, revolutionized the medical care in those institutions, revamped the educational system, provided those unfortunate children recreation and an opportunity for hand work, which gave even the little subnormal youngsters some vague sense of the human dignity that comes from doing something worth while.

Mr. Kingsbury has left his successor a heritage of another sort, the foundation of a new Randall's Island, with buildings that represent the last thought in hospital equipment, with a medical staff consisting of physicians of the highest standing in the city, with the best of educational care, so that when those buildings are finished, the new Randall's Island will shed lustre upon our city and will indeed justify Mayor Mitchell's statement that it is the most constructive humanitarian achievement of his administration.

Mr. Kingsbury is on his way to France, a soldier of the Red Cross enlisted to aid humanity's army in its work of caring for the civilian tubercular of France. John A. Kingsbury is a modern humanitarian, with a progressive outlook that emphasizes prevention, and with that sympathy guided by intelligence which aims at cure.*

THE MEDAL TO LEO S. ROWE, LL.D.

PRESENTATION SPEECH BY PROFESSOR IRVING FISHER

The next medal will be given to a man whom I have known for years as an able, public-spirited economist, and one who is known for many other achievements.

His services as official and unofficial representative of the United States in connection with the relations of the United States with Central and South American countries, his ser-

*Mr. Kingsbury left for France a few days before the Annual Meeting. The medal was therefore presented to him unofficially before he sailed.

vices as chairman of the delegation to revise and codify the laws of Porto Rico, as delegate to the Third International Conference of American States at Rio de Janeiro in 1906, as chairman of the delegation to the First Pan American Scientific Congress, Santiago de Chile, 1909, as member of the United States Panama Joint Claims Commission, 1913; as Secretary of the Pan American Financial Conference Washington 1915; and as Secretary of the American and Mexican Joint Commission in 1916, all fit him for receiving this medal from the Institute.

Professor of Political Science in the University of Pennsylvania, he is now Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. He is also President of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, our sister organization, concerning which we had a committee appointed this afternoon looking toward a union between it and us.

THE REPLY BY DR. ROWE

It would be useless for me to attempt adequately to express my appreciation of the honor done me by the National Institute of Social Sciences in awarding this medal. The insignificant service that I may have been able to render is but a feeble effort toward that larger goal which we must reach in order that the united policy of the American republics may play its full part in the maintenance of international order and international peace.

We do not always realize how many agencies, official and unofficial, are contributing their share toward the establishment of closer relations between the United States and the countries of Latin America. In addition to the splendid results accomplished by the State Department, there is the great work that is being carried on by the Pan American Union, which, as you know, is under the general direction of the diplomatic representatives. The administrative supervision is exercised by the Director General, Hon. John Barrett.

To the far-seeing statesmanship of Wm. G. McAdoo, Secretary of the Treasury, we owe the establishment of the most important agency in the development of closer financial relations with our southern neighbors. At the outbreak of this

great war he saw with unerring vision that, the financial markets of Europe being closed to foreign investments, the time had arrived for closer financial coöperation between the American republics of the American continent. At his instance, the President called the first Pan American Financial Congress in 1915. One of the important results of this Conference was the establishment of an International High Commission composed of nine representatives from each of the countries of the American continent. The Minister of Finance of the respective countries presides over each national section. Through these national sections the fiscal administrative procedure of the republics of this continent is being harmonized and in this way one of the important obstacles to the development of commerce is being removed.

In April, 1916, the International High Commission held a meeting in the City of Buenos Aires which furnished the opportunity for a complete and frank interchange of views with reference to financial and commercial needs. The International High Commission is thus laying the foundations for closer financial coöperation, the far-reaching effects of which will be even more apparent at the close of the war than at the present time.

The President in his epoch-making address of January 8th, has given to this nation a new spiritual vision; a picture of a world of new moral values. The service which he has rendered can be made effective only if every citizen feels a sense of responsibility in making realities of these moral values. In the readjustment that must come after this war our relations with the republics of Central and South America, and especially the unity of international purpose of all these republics, will play a most important part. Fortunate is he, who, working quietly and unostentatiously, can make a modest contribution towards that spirit of continental solidarity, to that sense of community of interest which in the future will be one of the great safeguards of the world's peace.

THE MEDAL TO THOMAS W. SALMON, M.D.
PRESENTATION SPEECH BY DR. STEWART PATON

MR. CHAIRMAN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I assure you that I have a number of very delightful memories associated

with the acts of receiving Dr. Salmon's medals. This is not the first one. The last one of his medals that I received was from the Panama-American Exposition, and it had my name upon it. That is characteristic of Salmon. I worked for a summer on a committee on which he did all the work, and then the medal was sent to me. I think he is one of the hardest men to thank that I have ever known. It is characteristic of the man that he is not here tonight. He did the work, and then he allowed somebody else to receive the medal.

In trying to discharge this very pleasant duty, Mr. Chairman, there are two sets of obligations that I have to keep in mind—one to you—you have asked me, sir, to tell you something about Dr. Salmon—and the other is to Salmon. I am a friend of Salmon, and if I were to say very much of a personal nature or if I were to point out any of his good points, he wouldn't like it. As I can't afford to sacrifice this friendship, I hope you will understand the dilemma that I am in, sir.

I think, however, I may say that one of the reasons why Dr. Salmon has succeeded so well for the National Committee in presenting the doctrines of mental hygiene to the public is this—that he is an excellent example of good mental hygiene. He appreciates the value of facing every crisis in life, making a decision and then acting. That is the reason he is not here tonight.

I had a talk with him just a few days before he sailed, and he said to me, "It would be very easy for me to find a good many reasons why I should stay in America, but I am going to France." It is a fundamental principal of good mental hygiene to face a crisis, then act and not to be satisfied with faith without works. Another important principle is not to let our lives be dominated by impossible wishes—I wish the Prussian could have realized this simple truth. It is the desire to satisfy by an impossible wish that has given us this trouble in the world, and, Mr. Chairman, if you only think of it, it is not the Prussian who in the future may give us the greatest amount of trouble in the world; there is another person dominated by an impossible wish equally as belligerent and dangerous as the Prussian, and that person is the pacifist.

When you analyze the fundamental mental mechanism of the Prussian and the pacifist, they are practically the same—

both are trying to satisfy impossible wishes. One of the most dangerous mental mechanisms that is brought to the attention of the alienist is exhibited by the person who allows his life to be dominated by an impossible wish.

One reason why Salmon's judgment is so good, and why so many of us who are interested in the same work go to him for advice is that we know that he has ideals, but we are also conscious of the fact that in addition to entertaining ideals he has the capacity to act in an emergency—and that is essential for the preservation of sanity.

If Salmon had been here tonight, you wouldn't have heard anything about himself. Possibly you might have heard something about his work, but not what he had done but only what others had accomplished and what he hoped might be done.

I shall not speak about his work with the National Committee for Mental Hygiene; but shall mention a phase of the great problem I know he has often thought about and which we have discussed together. In the great crisis of our civilization which we are facing the real problem is can we regulate human behavior intelligently?

This problem only recently has attracted public attention. We didn't think about our physical ills until we were forced to do so by pestilence and plagues. Then we began to take an interest in typhoid fever and pneumonia, and it has taken this shake-up in the world to make us realize that we have never thought deliberately about the great problem of human behavior. Can we regulate the behavior of this little known animal, man, intelligently? If we can, then we have a right to be optimistic about civilization. If we can't do it—well! let us not mention the other alternative.

One man, a Frenchman, saw the real crisis in civilization coming and I wish we could pay some tribute to his genius here in New York. The name of that savant was Pinel, and he wrote a remarkable book in 1798. One of the practical things that came from that great practical idealist was this—the chains were taken off the insane in the old hospitals in Paris, and they were treated as people suffering from disease should be treated. Once when Pinel was asked about this reform, he said, "My chief interest is not in these patients as patients. My chief interest is in studying human behavior,

because unless we can understand human behavior, we can't have a rational system of education or a rational system of government."

Ladies and Gentlemen, think of it, the year was 1798, and it has taken this war to make us realize what Pinel was talking about. The greatest melting pot that the world has ever seen is here in the city of New York. Every fifth person, Dr. Salmon has told us, has arrived here since 1906. You go along the street count five, and the fifth person has arrived since 1906! What are we doing to solve the real problems of human behavior?

There are only two institutions in the country equipped from a scientific standpoint, to undertake this task—the Boston Psychopathic Clinic and the Henry Phipps Clinic in Baltimore. New York is without any proper institution, in spite of the crisis. We have been urged to make the world safe for democracy. Is that our first duty? Isn't democracy a system of trying to regulate human behavior intelligently? How are you going to regulate the behavior of any animal intelligently if you don't understand the animal? Isn't our first problem to see whether democracy ought to be made safe for the world, and, in order to do that, we should try to find out whether democracy satisfies the needs, the actual, not theoretic, needs of human beings; whether democracy directs the needs along intelligent channels, and does not attempt to repeat the dangerous Prussian experiment of struggling to adapt an impossible system to satisfy the human desires of human beings.

Wouldn't it be a splendid thing if here, in this city, at the time of this great crisis, we could demonstrate to the world that we were earnest, intelligently earnest in the study of the problems of human behavior. Surely we recognize the need of finding out all we can about this animal, man, and we should try to get to the bottom facts.

I heard a short time ago—I can't mention the figures, I haven't any right to do it, but it came from an official source—that next year we are going to need a great many Salmons, and where, we are entitled to ask, are they coming from? This is a great deal harder problem to solve than the coal problem.

Why can't we make adequate provision here in New York to supply that demand, train men competent to face these

problems and by doing this we pay a tribute to Pinel? It seems to me, also that in this way, we show that we appreciate the work of a man like Dr. Salmon.

THE MEDAL TO PROFESSOR CHARLES-E. A. WINSLOW

PRESENTATION SPEECH BY HENRY FAIRFIELD OSBORN, LL.D.

I am very much in earnest in regard to this medal to Dr. Winslow and I think its significance is doubled by the memory of the fact that last year we were giving a medal to Mayor Mitchel, who was the head of the most conscientious, patriotic, and especially the most intelligent government that the city of New York has ever enjoyed. We have seen all the intelligence we were so proud of that evening swept away and dragooned out of office and now see a procession of men representing the very opposite virtues entering into these most important and responsible positions; so that in this Institute we feel something like Sisyphus, who, having rolled the rock up the hill, sees it roll rapidly down to the bottom and begins the task all over again, trying as all are to disseminate intelligence among our people, among the great and recently most triumphant democracy of our city.

Now, what has this to do with the giving of the medal to Dr. Winslow? Everything in the world, since his claims are two-fold. First, as an investigator of distinction, trained in the Institute of Technology under Professor William I. Sedgwick, one of the best authorities in the matter of hygiene, bacteriology, and public health in this country, more recently Curator of the Department of Health of the American Museum of Natural History, a position which I am glad to say he still holds, and still more recently holding as well a strong position in the medical faculty of Yale University.

Secondly, it is not, however, so much his services to this country along lines of research, which connect him closely with the National Institute of Social Sciences, as the fact that he has been one of the most active, successful, and intelligent propagandists of the day for intelligence in all matters relating to public health.

The public food and health exhibition which he has arranged, following the great anti-tuberculosis exhibition many

years ago, is the most informing and enlightening of all the efforts that have ever been made along this line to spread amongst the people and get into the public mind—which in a democratic community like ourselves is not easy to penetrate—the knowledge of the fundamental laws of health and to give this knowledge in such a way that it can be appreciated by people of limited education.

All those of us who are interested in the great problems which present themselves to us in this great city along educational lines feel that our only hope is in courageously rolling the great rock up the hill again in an endeavor to reach the youth of the city, the boys and girls, as they have been reached through this wonderful exhibition; engineered, planned, carried out by Dr. Winslow, which has been seen by thousands and thousands of children in the public schools, by hundreds of thousands of visitors at the American Museum of Natural History and recently in the College of the City of New York.

Those of you who have never tried to arrange an exhibition of this kind, an exhibition which speaks for itself, which explains itself, have no idea of the difficulties which must be overcome. We congratulate Dr. Winslow on the very large measure of success which he has attained in introducing this most important subject as he has introduced it, in touching life at every point, from the disease-spreading bacteria to the more recent work that he has been doing along the line especially suggested by the diminution of the food supply, along the line of food values and the substitutes which may be found for them, and showing the really fine qualities of strength, of energy, of life-giving power which may be found in some of the less utilized foods.

Following up this work, it was eminently natural that the distinguished Red Cross Commission which went from the United States to Russia, had among its members Professor Winslow, to whom we are about to present this medal.

There have been comparatively few men in the history of science who have felt the two-fold duty of investigation and research and also the giving out as widely as possible of the benefits of research.

Professor Winslow, we feel that at this time and in our community there is no one who has done nobler and better work for American education along these lines than yourself; therefore, we have great pleasure in recommending the award of this medal.

THE REPLY BY PROFESSOR WINSLOW

MR. PRESIDENT, PROFESSOR OSBORN, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I accept this medal with warm gratitude, and with keen appreciation of the honor, an honor which I know is not a personal one, because there are too many connected with the conduct of the affairs of this organization who know me well for me to dream that the award is in any sense a personal one. It is an award to the cause which I have the privilege of representing, to the new and very lusty profession of public health.

This is not the first time that the type of man who is particularly represented in the affairs of this Society has shown appreciation of the importance of public health. The father of the modern public health movement was not a sanitarian, not a medical man, but a sociologist, Edwin Chadwick, who seventy years ago began this whole movement in England. He began it from the standpoint of a poor-law commissioner who was seeking in ill health for one of the principal causes of poverty.

The father of sanitation in this country was not a physician, not a sanitarian, but Lemuel Shattuck, of Massachusetts, a student of social sciences who approached the subject from exactly the same standpoint. And, in the great awakening that has taken place in public health during the last twenty years, as you all know, one of the greatest and most significant forces has been the work of your President, who was the head of the Committee of One Hundred and in countless other ways has stimulated and developed and set going the great movement that we have seen.

We have much yet to do. I re-read the classic report of the Sanitary Commission of Massachusetts now and then for inspiration, and I brought it with me on the train this afternoon. I noted these things among the points which Lemuel Shattuck recommended as necessary to be done in Massachusetts in 1850: the campaign against intemperance, the for-

mation of educational sanitary associations in every town, the proper care of mental cases, as health problems and not as police problems, housing construction to be undertaken at public expense, the control of the sale of nostrums, the training of nurses and sanitarians, the preaching of health sermons in the churches, the keeping of systematic family health records, and the conduct of what he calls individual personal health surveys at frequent intervals, which was the foreshadowing of what has now been carried out in the Life Extension Institute.

We have much to do even yet to realize the ideals of 1850, and we have to learn from every source, and we have to adopt in the future, all that was suggested at that time, if we are to work out a plan of complete and comprehensive health protection which begins before the child is born and extends through school and industrial life, and protects him in the end against the degenerative diseases of later life.

It was not my good fortune to go to Russia with Senator Root. I wish that I might have had the privilege of serving under him, if I could have done so without losing the privilege of serving under Mr. Davison. I went to Russia as a member of the American Red Cross Mission and I know that my superior officer in that work, General Davison, will realize that I couldn't even speak for two minutes without saying a word about Russia, and Russia has much to teach us in regard to these particular problems. Russia has worked out in her system of zemstvo medicine the fundamental principle of the socialization of medicine that we are only beginning to realize as yet here. When our public health preventive work is fused with their system of social medicine, we shall have gone very far along the road that we have to travel.

Let me point out that this exchange between the social sciences and public health has been in some degree a reciprocal one. Some of your greatest social problems have been solved effectively only when they have become health problems. I think that is true of the alcohol question. As long as it was purely an ethical question, it made slow progress; just as soon as it became not only an ethical question but a question of health and efficiency, it arrived very rapidly at a solution. The eight-hour day, as long as it was merely a social aspiration

came slowly, but today in the light of what has been worked out within the last five years in regard to the effect of fatigue upon efficiency, that problem is in line for much more rapid settlement. The same thing will be true of the minimum wage and of many other social questions, that as they become health questions, they will advance more rapidly; and in all these questions, the new view of everything about us that the war has brought is going to be of incalculable assistance. We were getting set in our ways, we thought we knew something, and today every single question is being reopened, every single question is being taken up afresh and taken up from the broadest and the deepest social viewpoint.

A committee of the American Public Health Association waited on President Wilson a short time ago, and in the course of their conference, Dr. Ennion Williams, of Virginia, told the President about a particular example of their work, in which the State Board of Health had sent a man to the neighborhood of a certain factory and had cleaned up the malaria situation for them; and he told him how the manufacturer came back and said to him, "This is the most wonderful thing that ever happened. Every summer we have had a large proportion of our machines idle on account of illness. Last summer we didn't have a single machine idle." And the President looked at him and said, "Yes, I think after this war, a great many men are going to learn that it pays to have a heart." The war is going to teach us that it pays to have a heart, that it pays to have a conscience, and that it pays to set in the forefront of every effort at social improvement those things which make for the health and the life and the physical efficiency of mankind.

THE MEDAL TO WILLIAM J. MAYO, M.D.

PRESENTATION SPEECH BY H. HOLBROOK CURTIS, M.D.

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN OF THE INSTITUTE AND GUESTS: You may not know what Honorary Secretary of an Institute means, but an honorary secretary has the same position as that held in a large tenement or apartment house by the janitor. If there is anything wrong in the management, if there is any man who is absent from any of

his duties, if there is any one to be cross-questioned as to his qualifications, it is always the janitor who is sent for. Tonight, in the absence of the President of the New York Academy of Medicine, Dr. James, and of Dr. John Walker, suddenly called abroad, who was to have made this address tonight, the janitor has been called upon as usual.

Dr. Walker knew the Mayos very well and could have made a very able address as to their work and their characteristics.

In 1840, there came from the other side, from the town of New Barns, Eccles township, near Manchester, in England, a man by the name of William Mayo, who settled in Missouri. He graduated in medicine in 1853 from the University of Missouri. Afterwards, he moved to Minnesota, and there settled in a little town called Rochester, which later became a very wonderful center of medicine and research.

In 1883, the year in which William J. Mayo, who is to be decorated tonight with our medal, was graduated from the University of Minnesota, a tremendous windstorm or tornado swept through the town. This tornado was the indirect cause of his receiving the medal here tonight, for it injured seriously eighty members of the village. For lack of a hospital they were taken to the Convent School of the Sisters of St. Francis. There they were attended by the elder Mayo and his two sons, William and Charles.

The convent that received these poor sufferers afterwards erected a hospital, and Dr. Mayo, Sr., was appointed surgeon in that hospital. The two sons, William and Charles were his assistants and established a clinic there before the end of the eighties. During the next ten years, that clinic became the Mecca of all surgical cases in the surrounding states, and later the Mecca of physicians and surgeons from all over the world, attracted by the wonderful operations of these two men, who developed a system of surgery which enabled them unaided to perform five thousand capital operations in a year—an average of nearly twenty operations a day.

These men came forth in that little town in Minnesota, in their hospital established by the sisters, unheralded and unknown. It was in the time of Lister, when antiseptic surgery was in use all over the world. I remember seeing Dr. Thomas

operate at the Woman's Hospital here with a cloud of carbolic acid spray around him that would smart your eyes and you could hardly breathe it, on the theory that antiseptic surgery was the surgery of the future. It was the Mayo brothers who were among the first to develop the fact that asepsis instead of antiseptis was the great secret, a discovery which called forth the success they achieved in the next decade.

Dr. William J. Mayo has been decorated—I shall have to read you the list of his numerous decorations, or a few of the notable ones, because I can't remember them, they are so many. He received the F. R. C. S. from Edinburgh in 1905; F. R. C. S. from England in 1913, the highest recognition that a surgeon can attain in the British Isles; he received the degree of LL.D. from the University of Toronto in 1906; LL.D. from the University of Maryland in 1907; LL.D. from the University of Michigan in 1908; Sc.D. from Columbia College in 1910; he was elected a member of the Academy of Medicine of Paris and the Surgical Society of Paris in 1911.

In 1915, the Mayo brothers gave one million five hundred thousand dollars to the University of Minnesota to establish a foundation for medical education and research. These men, at the beginning of the war, turned over their work to others and both enlisted. They are now taking their turns at the front. Dr. Charles Mayo is at the front today, while Dr. William J. Mayo, who is to be honored by a gold medal from this Institute tonight, is an advisor to the Surgeon General at Washington.

The whole career of these men, aside from their surgical ability, has a most wonderful humanitarian aspect. If you had ever seen the caressing way in which one of the brothers laid his hand upon a poor sufferer, you would have realized that it was a question of heart and not of technique, you would have understood how these men, aside from their great surgical skill, have won their way into the hearts as well as into the minds of all their associates and the people at large. I consequently ask that Professor William J. Mayo be awarded the gold medal of the Institute.

THE MEDAL TO HERBERT C. HOOVER

PRESENTATION SPEECH BY IRVING FISHER

The next medalist is also unavoidably absent, though he had expected and hoped to be present. He sent a telegram at the last moment that it would be impossible, because his duties at Washington demanded his continuous attention.

I shall not expatiate on the characteristics and merits of a man whose name is a household word perhaps more than that of any other man today. I remember before we entered the war hearing from a friend of mine who had visited Belgium of a wonderful young man there and his great work of relief, and of how he kept systematic records and charts of the relief ships on the Atlantic, so that the supply of relief and food could be continuous.

This man has been honored by the President of the United States, and now the Institute of Social Sciences honors him—and I hope not only by conferring upon him this medal but by standing squarely behind him in his work, for it is a task that requires courage of the highest order. When I see what wrath has been called forth by what our fuel conservator has just done, when I realize that those who are wrathful do not know one per cent. of what he knows, it seems to me we ought to give the benefit of the doubt to those who, under the stress of war, are exercising unheard-of powers for the good of this country. And let us, until it is demonstrated that an error has been made, give the benefit of the doubt to the man who is forced to make choices between alternatives either of which is sure to cause hardship to someone. I confer upon myself the honor of taking to Washington this medal for Herbert C. Hoover.

Mr. Arthur Williams, not having been present on this occasion, enclosed for the benefit of other members, the following notes concerning Mr. Hoover:

Herbert C. Hoover, who during the last four years has loomed so large in world affairs, was born at West Branch, a small Iowa town, on August 10, 1874. His parents were Quakers, his father of Dutch descent. The family soon after moved to California, where they took up a farm in Siskiyou County. When the boy was nineteen years old, though

dependent on his own resources, he matriculated at the then new Leland Stanford University in the department of geology and mining. The fact that, while a hard student, he found time for important student activities is seen in his organizing the finances of the student body on a system that is in use at the present time. Young Hoover was graduated in 1895 as a mining engineer, and secured a place on the staff of a mining corporation that was operating in Nevada County. He was paid two dollars a day, and his duties consisted in pushing ore-laden cars from the mouth of the mine to the reducing works.

Mr. Hoover appears next in the desert of New South Wales in connection with mining work in the district known as Broken Hill. What may be called his world-citizenship dates from this time, and was further substantiated by his moving north to China where he performed conspicuous service by protecting the interests of his company during the Boxer troubles. Later on he went to London as Managing Director of his mining corporation, a position which necessitated a trip around the world each year on an inspection tour.

His next task was the translation of a famous old treatise on metallurgy, the "De Re Metallica" by Agricola, first published in 1556. With the help of his wife, Mr. Hoover translated the difficult old Latin text into English.

On the sudden outbreak of the war in 1914, finding themselves in London, Mr. and Mrs. Hoover immediately took up the task of aiding stranded Americans. This accomplished, Mr. Hoover undertook the relief of six million Belgians.

His appointment as Food Administrator on April 13, 1917, came not only in recognition of this work, but in appreciation of his world experience as a buyer and executive. Concerning this appointment, the *New York Times* had this to say: "At the outbreak of the war, he put his private affairs aside to become the head of the American Commission for the Relief of Belgium. He has had an experience that perhaps no other man ever had, covering the raising of money and the purchase and distribution of supplies on a large scale. He has been brought into close relations with neutrals and with the belligerents on both sides. By them all he is recognized as one of the best executives brought to the fore by the war. . . . This appointment gives renewed assurance of our

government's grasp of the problems of war, and its resolve to apply business principles to their solution."

THE MEDAL TO HENRY P. DAVISON, LL.D.

PRESENTATION SPEECH BY THE HONORABLE ELIHU ROOT

MY DEAR MR. DAVISON: I have been authorized by this Society, over the signature of its "janitor," to present to you the gold medal of the Institute. Professor Fisher declines to place that medal in my hand for the purpose of giving it to you, and Mrs. Davison confides to me that she suspects it to be because I have so recently held public office, but he assures me that when I release it by finishing my brief remarks he will faithfully transfer it to your possession.

It is not my purpose to put you in the position which Henry Ward Beecher once occupied, when, having been introduced to an audience with fervent eulogy, he said that he knew how a buckwheat cake felt after maple syrup had been poured all over it. I know how painful it would be for you if I were to tell you all that I think of you and all that these guests here think of you.

I am going to give you the medal and see that Professor Fisher hands it to you, because we are all grateful to you, because it is part of the function of this institution to express the best judgment of the people of the United States upon the merits which deserve to be honored.

When, on the 10th of May last, the President called you to the head of the American Red Cross, matters were in a very distressing and desperate condition upon the war frontiers. Vast areas had been devastated, millions of peaceful people had been reduced to poverty, hundreds of thousands of children had been left without parents, millions of men had been wounded, maimed, blinded, there was the greatest distress, lack of food, lack of clothing, lack of homes; and our own young men were about to go to the front and to endure the same hardships, the same distress.

We felt that it would be difficult for the government not merely to relieve the distress of others, but to care for the comfort of our own land. Subsequent events have shown that that apprehension was well founded. The original object of

the Red Cross and all those offices of charity which it had gathered to itself during its most creditable and noble history in this country required that that organization should undertake to relieve the distress and to prevent further distress, so far as the American people were competent to do it, and it was then that the President called upon you.

You found an organization containing less than five hundred thousand members—four hundred and eighty-six thousand—with an income which mounted up so high as two million dollars in a single year, with some five hundred and thirty-five chapters scattered throughout the country. But you had the intelligence and the breadth of view to see that that organization was wholly inadequate to deal with the tremendous task which lay before it, and it was not your nature to hunt elephants with birdshot. So you proceeded to make an adequate organization. You not only had the instinct of organization, but you had faith in the American people, for which we are grateful to you. You appealed to them and they answered your appeal.

A mere outcry would not have accomplished it, because the outcry would not have reached the American people. There is such a din of sound everywhere that mere noise accomplishes nothing; but you made an organization, and through the organization you reached the hearts and the intelligence of the people themselves. You expanded the five hundred and odd chapters of the Red Cross to over fifteen thousand all over the United States. You raised the income far above two millions; in one short, perfectly organized and conducted drive in a single week in June, you secured good, bona-fide subscriptions to the amount of a hundred and three million dollars for the work of the Red Cross.

Of that hundred and three million dollars, over ninety-seven million has already been paid in cash, and the balance of six million is good. Thirty-seven million of it is already appropriated for expenditure and being expended in the war-worn and harried regions of France and among the brave men who are enduring, suffering, in the constant presence of death, fighting for us.

You raised the membership of the Red Cross from four hundred and eighty-six thousand to twenty-two million,

more than one person in five of the whole population of the United States, an achievement unparalleled in the history of private enterprise,—and you not only organized adequately to raise the money and enlist the sympathies and the coöperation of our people, but you organized adequately to spend the money, which is quite a different thing; for it is so easy to throw money away, and it is so easy to do more harm than good with it. You organized to spend the money and it is being expended, according to all most credible and authentic testimony, with the highest efficiency, for the precise purpose for which it was given by our people.

You have taught us a lesson, the lesson that there still lives among the American people the genius of great enterprise, privately conducted, which explains the upbuilding of our vast country, the maintenance of our institutions, and is a reason for well-grounded hope of success in the great war that we are fighting for liberty.

You have taught us a lesson of faith in our people, a lesson so cheering now when many things are discouraging. I nominate you now, sir, to go to Washington and open a school for instruction in organization.

You have done another thing. There is nothing more demoralizing than sentiment which has no outcome, mere sentiment that isn't translated into acts. You have been the means of enabling the American people to translate their sentiments into acts—millions of women knitting, knitting all the time, with their souls buoyed up, their nerves calmed and their lives made more cheerful, amid all the gloom and terrors of war, by the consciousness they are doing something for somebody else for whom they care. That you have given them the opportunity to do. Then you have kept the boys warm, many and many a boy. Many thousands of our boys would be in hospitals or in their graves tonight except for the fact that they were saved by the splendid energy and power that you have exhibited in what you have done with the Red Cross.

And look at what you have done on the war lines in France. You have elevated the conception of American citizenship and of the American spirit among the people of the old world. We ought to be proud of you because you have made us prouder of ourselves and justified us in it.

So, take the medal, give it to Mrs. Davison to keep—it isn't worth much compared with the business that you abandoned to devote your entire time to this work, but when you grow old, what it represents will cover your gray hairs with honor and surround you with a host of friends who will love you for what you have done for them and for theirs. Let her hand it down to your children, for, as they fight the battle of life after you have gone, what that medal represents will lead the world to say, "Ah, yes, he is a son, he is a grandson of the man that made the great drive for the Red Cross in the year '17 of the Great War. There is good stuff in him, there is good stock in him." Ah, yes, this medal represents for you what money couldn't buy and what you were not working for, honor, respect, affection and gratitude, all of which we assure you now.

Mr. Davison, by authority committed to me by the Institute, I have the honor to confer upon you the highest honor in its gift, the gold medal of the Institute.

THE REPLY BY MR. DAVISON

MR. PRESIDENT, SENATOR ROOT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: I really am embarrassed, not because I am standing before you to speak, but because I feel that I should not as yet accept this medal. I consented to receive it in a moment of weakness. I think it would have been more fitting if my work had been nearer completion before I accepted this great honor from your Society.

I was asked one day how long I was going to be in the Red Cross, and I replied by telling a story which is not altogether elevating and elegant, but nevertheless rather expressive.

A colored fellow was thrown into a cell, and, as the door was closed, he looked across the corridor and recognized a friend in the cell opposite. He said, "Hello, Jasper, how long you in foh?" Jasper said, "I'se in foh three weeks. How long you in foh?" "I'se in from now on." Perhaps I realize that sentence and therefore couldn't afford to wait for the termination of the work.

The honor, the tribute that has been paid to me by the Society and by Senator Root is very touching, very much ap-

preciated, and I must still feel not as yet merited. I have had the great privilege of being at the head of an organization which has the name of the American National Red Cross, but I have never regarded it, since the moment I took the position, as anything other than the name of the mobilized spirit of the men and of the women and of the older children of America, the name under which the men and the women and the children would recognize not only their obligation, but what is much more, their opportunity, to go forth and meet the other peoples of the world. The response of the people has been very gratifying but they needed only to be told how to organize, and then they went forth.

Today we are working in every part of the world among our Allies, and in two places behind the lines, and I have no reservation in saying, because I am speaking now of the people that they today are establishing relationships between the peoples of the world which will have an effect upon the peace which shall be declared some day, we hope in the not too far distant future.

It is impossible to give you any appreciation of the extent to which that work is being carried on and of the effect that it is having, but I want to say that those who are familiar with it are receiving satisfaction, and, if we are permitted to go on, we shall have achieved a result throughout the world for which the American people will forever be proud.

I am almost tempted to give you a Red Cross speech, but if I were to do that I would be charged with having praised my own wares. That I will not do, but I will say this,—that if the work is continued during the next year as it has been during the past, I believe that the effect will be felt not only in the terms of peace but in directly saving the lives of our own boys and in directly contributing to the shortening of the war.

I want to say again that I just find myself as one of many who are devoting themselves to the work, and, after all, it is nothing more or less than that which the people themselves are doing. I have just finished a trip of eighteen thousand miles, and there is no part of this country where the people are not in complete accord and devoting themselves assiduously to the work. All that is necessary is to show them what to do, and they respond, and the spirit of the country in this

work, as in all the departments in connection with the war, is truly wonderful. I return to you a very great optimist. I want again to express my appreciation for this honor. Thank you.

The evening closed with some amiable raillery from Mr. Patrick Francis Murphy.

EXTRACTS FROM MR. MURPHY'S REMARKS

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN: Seated in the peaceful valley below, and looking at the men who have received medals tonight, I have discovered that it is embarrassing to receive tributes, and if they are deserved, it is still more embarrassing.

It was the opinion of the ancients that the best way to improve mankind was to find out the qualities they lacked, and then praise them for possessing them; on the principle that you can praise people into virtues more easily than you can rail them out of their vices, and, if I knew of any amiable qualification that the honored guests lack, I would freely attribute it to them.

I agree with Dr. Paton in that rather pessimistic view he took tonight of mankind. I hope I shall not be considered original in saying that in a world which, if the geologists tell us rightly, is several billions of years old, many instances of human frailty may have happened. Perfection has never fallen to the lot of mortals,—still, there are many nice people in the world, if you take them for what they wish to appear, like women's shoes, made to fit the eye and not the foot.

It was sometime during the early eighties, I remember, in England, a Society of Aesthetes was formed, founded by a literary lady named Mary Gladstone, the daughter of the Premier. The avowed purpose of that Society was to call pointed attention to each other's virtues. Their earthly acquaintances, somewhat jealous of the rarified atmosphere in which that society lived—(by the way, that society was called The Souls) formed a new organization which was to be called the Parasols. The mission of the members of the latter organization was to make public confession of each other's shortcomings.

I have discovered the purpose of this Society; it is to reward gifted men, men of inestimable beneficence and of service to mankind; men who have done something in the world to show they have been in it. There are many attainments in our possession which we do not really enjoy. It is, therefore, a kind office for this Institute to remind people of their own happiness and turn their attention to the good fortune they are apt to overlook. I agree with President Fisher that recognition of merit is sometimes tardy, for the man who is universally praised and admired by his fellow-creatures is generally dead, he is not in competition with the living. If some men could get out of their coffins and read the inscription on the tombstone, they would think they had got into the wrong grave. . . .

We are inclined to draw a hard line between words and deeds. But a word is a deed; a thought is an unspoken deed; and, in the life of any one, the words that are written or spoken make us what we are. It is said that all good laws proceed from bad manners; so possibly that good proverb "speech is silver and silence is golden," was the result of speaking in haste and repenting at leisure. But, noting the progress of mankind, noting what Mr. Davison has done, speech has done for the human race all that silence has neglected to do. Silence is not always tact. It is tact that is golden and not silence. Tact is that indefinable, intangible quality. When you have it, nobody notices it; and when you haven't it, everybody notices it. It is easy to say the right thing at the right moment, but the difficulty is to refrain from the wrong thing at the tempting moment.

I feel now that the hour is late. You know a speaker is always partial to his own productions just as mothers are to their deformed children, and when a speaker who roams in every field of thought and speculation comes to an admirable stopping place, it is only to take renewed strength to go on. He lacks what has caused the coal shortage—terminal facilities.

ON THE GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF A POLICY OF RECONSTRUCTION

BY THORSTEIN VEBLEN

There are certain cardinal points of orientation that will guide any endeavor to reach a lasting settlement on the return of peace. In the main these are points of common sense, and as such they will doubtless already be present in the mind of all thoughtful persons who interest themselves in these matters. But it can do no harm to put down in set form certain of the elementary propositions that will so give the point of departure and will define the limitations of such measures of reconstruction as may reasonably be expected to go into effect.

It is assumed as a major premise that the controlling purpose of any prospective settlement will be the keeping of the peace at large; that the demands of the peace are paramount, whatever other matters of convenience or expediency may be brought in as subsidiaries. As a counterfoil of this premise there immediately follows the further proposition that there can be no return to the *status quo ante*. The Great War was engendered by that scheme of life that has ruled human relations among civilized peoples in recent times; and a re-establishment of the same scheme of relations among these peoples now may confidently be counted on to lead to the same disastrous issue.

Therefore the question presents itself: What can be done, by taking thought, to avoid a return to that fateful complication in the conduct of human affairs that has now come to be known as the *status quo ante*? What manner of change in existing arrangements could be counted on to make sure that civilized mankind will not again run over the same sinister course to the same disastrous outcome in the near future? How far and in what respect will men be content to forsake their accustomed scheme of use and wont and law, as it has stood during these years out of which the Great War has arisen? Some substantial change is imperative, if the peace is to be kept; and, I apprehend, all thoughtful persons are

now ready to agree that the peace must be kept, at all costs, and that any plan of reconstruction which does not promise peace and security will not be worth considering.

It is imperative to change the scheme of use and wont, of law and order, as it runs between men and between nations, so far as regards those rights and relations out of which dissension habitually arises and about which men go to war. Now, it is an easy generalization, or rather it is a time-worn commonplace, that all such disputes as rise to the dignity of warfare in our time turn always about National Ambition or Business Enterprise, one or the other, or more commonly both together. Within the confines of modern civilization religious wars, *e. g.*, wars undertaken avowedly for pillage, are out of date and are considered to be beneath the dignity of civilized statesmen. What one hears of is the national integrity, national destiny, national honor, or perhaps national opportunity, national expansion, national aggrandizement. These various objects of national ambition have at least the appearance of differing widely from one another; and it would doubtless appear that they are not all equally threatening to a state of peace and security at large. Indeed, many a kindly and thoughtful follower of the gospel of peace and good-will has committed himself to the view that the national integrity, or the national honor, *e. g.*, is to be rated foremost among the things that are to be safeguarded in any eventual peace compact. Probably none but a relatively few among the law-abiding citizens would hesitate to choose war with the national honor intact, rather than peace without it. On the other hand, relatively few would choose to further national aggrandizement at the cost of war.

Yet, however much these different objects of national ambition may differ among themselves they have this much in common, that they are matters of political aspiration, and that they afford grievances to be redressed by recourse to arms. It is between nations, and on the ground of national claims and interests, that war is carried on; at least such is the case in the formal sense that it is as a nation only that any people figures as a recognized belligerent under the currently accepted rules of etiquette governing affairs of this kind. It will probably be admitted without argument that whenever a given community divests itself of its national character—as, *e. g.*, Hawaii in 1898

—such a people ceases to be admissible as a qualified belligerent, under the rules of international courtesy; and it will likewise be admitted that whenever any given community makes its way into free recognition as a belligerent, such recognition amounts to a recognition of the belligerent's national character. Of course these formalities are of the nature of diplomatic punctilio, and they do not gravely touch the substance of things; but then, the national integrity, the national honor, etc., also are always matters of formality and diplomatic punctilio, in great part; it will perhaps be admitted that they are of this nature in the main.

Such are the formalities of diplomatic and belligerent etiquette. But it does not follow that because a people can enter into the holy state of belligerency only as a nation and only on due observance of the national proprieties, that therefore such a people will necessarily be engaged in warlike enterprise only as a nation, and only on motives of national ambition. The present case of the United States may be taken to show the difference. This country entered on this enterprise only after a punctilious compliance with all the national courtesies in such cases made and provided, and on due allegation of specific national grievance to be redressed. But it has been an open secret from beforehand, and it has been made abundantly plain by the American administration since then, that the substantial motive of this enterprise has no color of national ambition. The national grievances alleged in the formal declaration were grave enough, no doubt; the record of them comprises an inordinate destruction of life and property and a remarkable series of crimes and atrocities; and yet it can fairly be said that the redressing of these national grievances is not of the essence of the contract which the country has undertaken.

The abiding purpose of America in the war is to bring about a settled state of peace and security. If all this is accomplished, then any national establishment may come to have little more than a decorative use; as a political agency it will be in a fair way to become obsolete through disuse. What would be needed to put things in train for such an outcome would be that the pacific peoples pool their political issues; somewhat after the fashion in which they are now beginning to learn that it is expedient to pool their issues and their forces in the conduct of the war. It will probably not be questioned that this

pooling of forces and issues for the conduct of the war is likely to go much farther than it has done hitherto, in case the war continues for an appreciable length of time; and the suggestion is ready to hand that the international pool so entered into under pressure of the war had best be designed on such lines that it may also eventually serve to keep the peace.

This would mean a further pooling of national issues in those respects in which national issues are apt to bring on dissension; which means issues of national ambition and issues of business enterprise under national auspices. But national ambition, in the way of territorial aggrandizement or warlike dominion, is a dead issue in America—it has been weighed and found wanting; so that, in effect, all that still remains in question is the issue between national business enterprise and free trade. Now, in the new era, and for the sake of peace and international good-will, will the American citizens be content to forego preferential advantages—at the nation's cost—for such of their compatriots as are interested in tariff-protected industries, or are engaged in the foreign trade, or derive an income from investments and concessions in foreign parts? It is to be admitted that this is still a matter of grave doubt. And it may be an over-sanguine hope, but there should at least be something of a chance that the nation may yet, under pressure of sore apprehension, bring itself also to pool these issues of business traffic along with the rest of what goes to nourish political intrigue. At any rate, in that direction lies the best assurance of peace and security at large. And if America gives a lead in the direction of such a disclaimer of national discrimination, the lead so given should reasonably be expected to go far to persuade the other pacific nations into a collusive disclaimer of the same kind.

The upshot of all this would be, of course, that the national establishment would in great part cease to function, whether as an engine of vacant political intrigue or as a handmaid of private commercial enterprise. If such an arrangement can be achieved, or in the degree in which such a result can be approached, the hazard of dissension will be removed from among those pacific nations whose international concerns so would come within the jurisdiction of that league of pacific peoples that is held in prospect by the wiser statesmen of our time.

But all this covers only one half, perhaps the smaller and less precarious half, of the precarious situation that will face the American people on the return of peace—more particularly if the peace at large is once established on that stable footing to which all good men hopefully look forward.

Let no man be deceived into believing that the removal of international friction will of itself bring in an era of tranquillity at home. So soon as all apprehension of national danger is at an end, and preoccupation with international strategy has ceased to divert men's attention, the table will be cleared for a single-minded deliberation on the state of the country at home. And there is already visible such a cleavage of interests, sentiment and ambitions as may reasonably be taken to argue for a stormy reckoning ahead.

Considered as a going concern, collectively engaged in the traffic of human living, the American commonwealth is perhaps not ready to go into the hands of a receiver; perhaps a liquidation had best be avoided, although the widely apprehended need of a deliberate reconstruction might be taken to argue that in the mind of many thoughtful persons something like a liquidation is felt to be nearly due. There is, at the best, a wide-spread apprehension that the affairs of this going concern are in something of a precarious case. The case may not be so grave; but the derangement of conditions caused by the war, as well as the degree in which the public attention now centers on public questions, mark the present as the appointed time to take stock and adopt any necessary change in the domestic policy.

In assuming or accepting the assumption that there is need of some reconstruction, it is assumed that the system of use and wont under which the community now lives and does its work is not altogether suited to current circumstances. It is more or less out of date. This also carries the further assumption that the evil to be remedied is of a systematic character and that merely palliative measures will no longer serve. This involves the proposition that some realignment of the working parts is necessary even at the cost of deranging any vested rights and interests that may stand in the way. Indeed, any degree of closer attention to the problem and purpose involved in any proposed reconstruction will bring out the fact that the prime object is to reach such a revision of vested rights

and economic relations as will result in a more tolerable scheme of life and work. That is what reconstruction means—it is a revision of vested rights, for the common good. What is to be avoided at all costs is the *status quo ante*.

An illustrative case may serve to show what is intended by the phrase "vested rights," in the more comprehensive sense. In modern industry, as conducted by the methods of big business, it is one of the vested rights of the owner or employer freely to engage workmen on any terms on which they can be got, and to discharge them at discretion. It is another of his vested rights freely to employ as many or as few men as may suit his purpose, which is a quest of profits, and to work his own industrial plant more or less nearly up to its capacity, or not at all, as may suit his own purpose, in his quest of profits. On the other hand, among the vested rights of the workmen, or at least claimed as such, is their right to a job; so also an alleged right to discriminate as to what other men are to be associated with them on the job; also a right to quit work when they choose, *i. e.*, to strike at discretion.

But taken in the large and seen from the point of view of the interest of the community, these vested rights and interests of the two parties in controversy will figure up to something that may be called a right to exercise an unlimited sabotage, in order to gain a private end, regardless of the community's urgent need of having the work go on without interruption and at full capacity. The slowing down or stoppage of the industrial process at any point or on any plea by those who control the equipment or the personnel of industry works mischief to the community by that much, and falls short of that service which the community has a right to expect.

In such a case, it is evident, the vested interests so working at cross purposes are thereby cheating the community of the full benefit of the modern state of the industrial arts; and it is plain that such a case of interests working at cross purposes is a fit subject of revision; such revision as will bring the industrial process to the highest practicable efficiency and reduce the sum of ill-will among the persons engaged to the lowest practicable dimensions. It should also be plain that the revision must be made primarily with a view to set up a condition of things that shall bring as much as may be of use-

fulness and content, and with only a secondary regard to the present vested interests of any one of the persons concerned.

This case of conflict between employer and employees, between the owner of plant and the owner of workmanlike skill and power, may serve to show what is here intended by incompatible or mismated vested interests. It is not here intended to find fault with either party to such a conflict. It is unreservedly assumed that they are all honorable men and all within their rights, as these rights have been allowed to stand hitherto. It is because the existing arrangement, quite legitimately and dispassionately, works out in a running campaign of sabotage, that the whole matter is to come up for a revision and realignment in which vested interests are to be set aside, under a higher necessity than the received specifications of use and wont and law. It is not that the conduct of the persons concerned is to be adjudged immoral, illegitimate or improper; it is only that it, and the kind and degree of discretion which it involves, have in the course of time become insufferable, and are to be disallowed on the ground of urgent expediency. It is also no part of the present argument to indicate what ought, as a matter of expediency, to be done toward the elimination of "labor troubles." That will require knowledge, wisdom, patience and charity of a higher order.

The points and passages in the conduct of industrial affairs at which vested interests work at cross purposes among themselves or at cross purposes with the common good, are many and various, and it could serve no purpose to attempt an enumeration of them here. There are few lines of industry or trade where nothing of the sort occurs. The inefficiency of current railway enterprise, *e. g.*, as seen from the point of view of material usefulness, has forced itself on the attention of the Administration under pressure of the war situation; so has the privately owned production and distribution of coal and the handling and distribution of food products. Shipping is coming under the same charge of costly incompetency, and the oil, steel, copper, and timber supply are only less obviously getting into the same general category of public utilities legitimately mishandled for private gain.

But to enumerate instances of such cross purposes between vested interests and the common good would scarcely be fruit-



ful of anything but irritation. It may be more to the purpose to indicate what are the characteristics of the modern industries by virtue of which their business-like management comes to work at cross purposes with the needs of the community or of given classes in the community, and then to look for something like a systematic remedial treatment which might hopefully be turned to account—in case some person or persons endowed with insight and convictions were also charged with power to act.

It is believed that this working at cross purposes commonly and in a way necessarily, though not always, will rise to disquieting proportions when and in so far as the industrial process concerned has taken on such a character of routine, automatic articulation, or mechanical correlation, as to admit of its being controlled from a distance by such means of accountancy as are at the disposal of a modern business office. In many, perhaps in most cases this will imply an industrial plant of some appreciable size, with a correspondingly large force of employees; but much the same outcome may also be had where that is not the case, as, *e. g.*, an enterprise in automatic vending machines, a "news company," so-called, or a baggage-transfer concern of the larger sort.

The mischief which such a situation gives rise to may be either or both of two distinguishable kinds: disagreement and ill-will between employers and employees, and mischievous waste, expense and disservice imposed on the concern's customers. Not unusually the large and formidable concerns classed as big business will be found censurable on both counts. Again it is necessary to recall that this is not intended as implying that such management is blameworthy, but only that a businesslike management under such circumstances and within its prescriptive rights results in the untoward consequences here spoken of.

If this account of the state of things out of which mischief of this character is wont to arise is substantially correct, the description of the circumstances carries its own suggestion as to what should be a promising line of remedial measures. The mischief appears to arise out of, or in concomitance with, the disjunction of ownership and discretion from the personal direction of the work; and it appears to take on an added

degree of mischance as soon as the discretionary control vested in ownership comes to be exercised by an employer who has no personal contact with the employees, and who has only a pecuniary acquaintance with the industrial processes employed or with the persons whose needs these processes are presumed to serve—that is to say, as soon as the man or staff in control pass into the class of supernumeraries, in respect to the mechanical work to be done, and retain only a pecuniary interest and habitually exercise only a pecuniary control.

Under these circumstances this central or superior control can evidently as well be exercised by some person who has no pecuniary interest in the enterprise, and who is therefore free to manage the industry with a view to its fullest usefulness and to the least practicable generation of ill-will on the side of the employees. Roughly speaking, any industrial process which can, and in so far as it can, be sufficiently well managed from a more or less remote office by methods of accountancy and for financial ends, can also, by the same token, be managed by a disinterested administrative officer without other than formal recourse to accountancy and without other than a secondary view to pecuniary results.

All of which patently goes to sum up the needed remedial measures, under two heads: (1) Disallowance of anything like free discretionary control or management on grounds of ownership alone, whether at first hand or delegated, whenever the responsible owner of the concern does not at the same time also personally oversee and physically direct the work in which his property is engaged, and in so far as he is not habitually engaged in the work in fellowship with his employees; (2) to take over and administer as a public utility any going concern that is in control of industrial or commercial work which has reached such a state of routine, mechanical systematization, or automatic articulation as to be habitually managed from an office by methods of accountancy.

Needless to say that when set out in this bald fashion, such a proposed line of remedial measures will appear to be shockingly subversive of law and order—iniquitous, impracticable, perhaps socialistic. And it is needless to argue its merits as it stands; particularly not to argue its merits within the equities of the existing law and order. Yet it may be as well to

recall that any plan of reconstruction which shall hope to be of any slightest use for its main purpose must begin by violating one or another of the equities of the existing law and order. A reconstruction means a revision of the present working system, the present system of vested interests, and of the scheme of equities within which that system is now working at cross purposes with the common good. It is a question of how and how far a disallowance of these existing vested interests is to be carried out. And the two propositions set out above are, therefore, intended to mark the direction which such a remedial disallowance of prescriptive rights will obviously take; not the limit to which such a move will necessarily go. They are intended to indicate the method, not the degree, of correction that appears to be expedient.

There is no socialistic iconoclasm in it all, either covert or overt; nor need any slightest animus of moral esteem or disesteem be injected into the argument at any point. It is a simple matter of material expediency, in which one of the prime factors to be considered is the growing prospect of an inordinate popular distrust. And the point of it all is that the present system of managing the country's larger industrial concerns by business methods in behalf of vested interests is proving itself bankrupt under the strain of the war situation; so much so that it is already more than doubtful if the community at large will hereafter be content to leave its larger material interests at the mercy of those business motives, business methods, and business men whose management is now shown to work such waste and confusion as can not be tolerated at a critical time. The system of vested rights and interests is up for revision, reconstruction, realignment, with a view to the material good and the continued tranquillity of the community at large; and there is therefore a call for a workable scope and method of reconstructing the existing scheme of law and order on such lines as will insure popular content. In this bearing, the meaning of "reconstruction" is that America is to be made safe for the common man—in his own apprehension as well as in substantial fact. Current events in Russia, for instance, attest that it is a grave mistake to let a growing disparity between vested rights and the current conditions of life overpass the limit of tolerance.

THE WORLD'S COURT LEAGUE IN RELATION TO THE POLICY OF RECONSTRUCTION

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The founders of the World's Court League believe that there can be no permanent peace without adjudication. They saw that civilization had progressed according as states and communities have made it possible to have all kinds of disputes and difficulties settled in courts of justice. The judicial system of every nation is the strong bulwark of its freedom and progress. The United States Supreme Court, serving as it does as the ultimate voice for forty-eight federated states, is a remarkable example of high attainment in the field of human security and stability.

It was with this great example before their eyes, and with a vision of the future federation of the world, that the World's Court League was organized and has endeavored to interest the publicists of the world in the great opportunity of establishing a world court to which all nations can go for the settlement of international disputes.

This is no new idea, neither is there any new enterprise projected. Two Hague conferences laid the foundations for a new world order and forty-three nations voted for an international court at the second conference. It is for the continuance of this plan of world conferences and for the establishment of some means of judicial settlement that the League is working. This move has the endorsement of leading men in all countries and there are few who oppose it, although some are still lacking in faith that so great a project can be achieved.

During the two years of the League's existence it has published a magazine known as the "World Court," and has conducted correspondence with the leaders of international thought in this and other countries. There has also been or-

ganized an international council made up of men selected from practically all nations except the central empires. An American advisory board includes many statesmen and publicists in this country. It is expected that when the opportunity arises for pushing forward the establishment of a court these men will contribute their influence and their exertions to that end.

While the setting up of machinery for the dispensation of justice is the chief aim of the League, it also seeks to extend and develop the present Hague Tribunal so that all nations may soon become accustomed to the idea of arbitrating such difficulties as do not need to be brought before a court of justice. Provision is also made for an International Council of Conciliation, or Commission of Enquiry, for hearing, consideration and recommendation, so that non-justiciable questions may be examined and reported upon before any hostile act is committed. The League approves most heartily those treaties made by President Wilson with other nations providing for delay and inquiry in case any trouble arises.

Again, while the officers of the League have not thought it best to take formal action on any of the many problems which have been raised by the war, they are committed without reserve to the support of our national government in its determination to overcome German militarism and to make the world "safe for democracy." They have carefully watched the progress of affairs and have tried to interpret the great changes brought about by the war so that the leaders of thought in other countries may get an important and just idea of the attitude and purpose of America. The League believes that the world's freedom is at stake and that every intelligent and sincere person, no matter where he dwells, should lend his aid in making sure that neither the forces of oppression nor those of anarchy are widely extended, but rather that true democracy, which is based, not only upon sound politics but real humanitarianism, may be established. All this is in accord with the purpose for which the League exists. The war is bringing great changes. Capitalism, imperialism and militarism are going to be bereft of much of their power and to a considerable extent are to yield to those forces which make for equality, liberty and human welfare.

The World's Court League is also keenly alive to the great work of reconstruction which will be necessary as soon as the war is over. There will be, of course, diplomatic and political phases of this process of rebuilding which cannot be ignored or minimized. It is important, as President Wilson has indicated, that a peace conference be made up not merely of politicians and diplomats of the ancient types, but that the great parliamentary bodies of the world have a voice in selecting delegates, so that those actions may be taken which are good not merely for those favored by wealth and position but for the workers in every field, the quiet toilers who can only make themselves felt by appointing worthy persons to represent them. If a peace conference is thus a democratic assembly, representative of all human interests, there is hope that problems of the realignment of nations and the self-determination of peoples will receive conscientious and honest consideration. It is also hoped and expected that the nations may see the folly and wickedness of maintaining great armies and navies, and will unite in gradually reducing these to a mere fraction of what they now are. This will be entirely consistent with the plan to settle international disputes through arbitration and adjudication rather than by war. The League sees with gratification that statesmen the world over are coming to this position. They are not going to be satisfied with any patch-work, or any plan of enforcing peace which does not really accomplish the end in view. They are not going to assume that public opinion, public honor and public will are not potentially the greatest forces in the world for moral betterment and for political security. The World's Court League has rejoiced to see a gradual solidifying of public sentiment in favor of a League of Nations constructed on the broadest principles of justice, economic freedom and human coöperation.

But the work of reconstruction will go far beyond the field of politics and diplomacy. It will demand the most generous and large hearted efforts for the rehabilitation of devastated and suffering peoples that has ever been undertaken. Those nations like the United States which are pouring out their money for the prosecution of the war will necessarily have to make large appropriations for the upbuilding of Belgium, Serbia, Po-

land, Armenia, Syria, Roumania and other torn and shattered populations. The world has never seen a greater tragedy than the deportation of the Armenians from thousands of towns and villages to the desert portions of Asia Minor. America has undertaken a system of relief of these peoples who are refugees in the Caucasus and in Persia as well as the remnant populations now scattered throughout Southern Asia Minor. The writer had the honor and pleasure of beginning this work in the autumn of 1915 and believes that the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief, which has grown into a nation-wide organization, and is raising nearly one million dollars per month, will be able to tide over the Christian peoples of the Ottoman Empire until the great work of rehabilitation can be actually undertaken. This will mean not only the re-establishment of homes and industries, but a scheme of practical education enabling the people to become again self-supporting and productive. It will also mean the establishment of such protection by responsible nations as shall forever secure their immunity from the outrageous and cruel treatment they have suffered in recent years.

It is not intended here to affirm that the World's Court League has committed itself to all these great and important undertakings, but it can be said without any hesitation that the fundamental principle of human justice upon which the League is founded includes in its beneficent purpose every one of the after-war problems mentioned above. The policy of the World's Court League in refraining from committing itself to detailed methods of manipulating world politics is entirely justified, for since the war began great changes have taken place in the direction of nationalizing and unifying tendencies, and it is safe to predict that many of these conceptions of unity, coöperation and economy will be carried over into the international field, making a society of nations not only possible but essential, and paving the way for those great victories with which peace has ever been credited.

THE LEAGUE TO ENFORCE PEACE

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LEAGUE TO ENFORCE PEACE

Two notable events have taken place during 1917 relating to the aims of the League to Enforce Peace.

One was the formal and official commitment of the Allies to the project of a league of nations to discourage future wars. This was given in their masterly reply to President Wilson of January 10, 1917. Their words are: "They associate themselves with all their hopes with the project for the creation of a league of nations to insure peace and justice throughout the world. They are conscious of all the advantages to the cause of humanity and civilization which would flow from the establishment of international rules designed to avoid violent conflicts between nations, rules which must provide the sanctions necessary to insure their execution and so prevent a false security from serving simply to facilitate new aggressions." Such a step is one that we had asked of them, but had hardly dared hope for. The only intimation we had that it was positively forthcoming was contained in a despatch from Hall Caine printed in the *New York Times* a few days before the reply itself came, although on September 19, 1916, Sir Gilbert Parker had written to us as follows: "I think that your idea of the Allies declaring in favor of compulsory inquiry, and a league to enforce it to be set up after the war, may be carried out, but it has not been definitely settled."

The second event, of the highest significance, was the actual setting up of a rudimentary international organization under the initiative of President Wilson in the form of the Allies' War Council. During the war participation in this council is necessarily confined to the allied governments, but it sets going a machinery which may prove permanent and the operations of which should extend, later on, to all progressive countries.

THE VISION OF A COMMONWEALTH*

BY DAVID JAYNE HILL

So long as governments insist upon the right of a strong state to subjugate or to exploit against its interest a weaker state, there will be no international harmony, and the world will be subjected to the ravages of recurrent wars. The attitude of the great powers upon this subject is, therefore, of the greatest moment, for it will determine the fate of civilization; and, in the end, in all but the most absolute governments, this attitude will be affected by the predominant opinions of thoughtful men.

It is, then, of interest to inquire: What is the present position of the great powers, upon whose decisions the future peace of the world will chiefly depend, regarding the rights of the small states, and of those colonial possessions which in the past have often been so cruelly exploited for the benefit of their overlords? In brief, are there any powers that are willing to submit to a peaceful decision of their own rights in relation to the weaker states, and voluntarily to subject themselves to principles of law and equity in their conduct generally? Upon the answer to these questions turns the whole problem of even partial international organization and the prospect of eliminating the military control of international affairs. Even though it should be found that a certain number of powers were disposed to apply strictly ethical principles to their business transactions, without throwing their military force into the scale, it would not follow that military force could be entirely dispensed with; for, as long as there remained in the world even one formidable military power that persisted in using force for its material advantage and refused to resort to pacific means for adjusting conflicts of interest, it would still be necessary for the powers that were ready to dispense with military decisions to arm themselves for defense against aggression, and perhaps to combine their forces in the interest of safety and justice.

*From "The Rebuilding of Europe," The Century Company, New York, 1917.

It would, however, mark the beginning of a new era if a number of great powers were sufficiently enlightened to perceive that economic imperialism is, in effect, an anachronism, and that their real interests would be better served by a combination not for the balance of power, but for a decided preponderance of power, that would be able by their union, on the one hand, to establish a system of legal relations and conciliatory policies; and, on the other, to render military exploitation an unprofitable and even a dangerous adventure.

It would, undoubtedly, be both unwise and unjust to limit in any way the extent of international union were it not for the fact that, until profound changes occur, a universal union would seem to be impossible. There is at present no unanimity among the nations regarding any authoritative basis for a society of states. No proposal has ever been made for the recognition of any such basis in any international conference. Because some powers have held that the state is a law to itself, and that there is no law which it is bound to obey, it has been impossible even to suggest that there is for sovereign states such a thing as outlawry. If there is in the nature of things no super-state law, and if states cannot make it without general consent, then of course no state can be treated as an outlaw; for there is no standard by which the legality of its conduct may be determined.

But it is still possible for a union of states to be formed which can determine by what law its members will be governed, and it is possible for them to exclude from it any state that does not accept this law. It is likely that if the formation of civil society had been suspended until every brigand and every housebreaker in the community was ready to favor a law against robbery, civil society would never have come into existence. The only way, it would appear, in which there is ever to be a real society of states is for those great powers which can find a sufficient community of interest to unite in the determination that they will themselves observe principles of justice and equity, and that they will unite their forces in defense of them.

It would be well if, at the conclusion of the Great War, or, if possible, even before it is ended, certain basic principles could be laid down that would be accepted by the belligerents

as inherently just and equitable, and solemnly subscribed to as binding upon them. Upon no other basis would a permanent peace appear to be possible. Any other result would be a mere armistice; for, whatever it may have been in the beginning, the present war is now declared to be "a conflict of principles," a battle for law and right on the one side, and for arbitrary power on the other.

If the conflict is really a struggle for a just organization of international relations, it is of the highest importance to the cause of civilization that the principles necessary to a true society of states should be clearly formulated and, as far as possible, accepted now, while the conflict is still going on; and those who profess to champion them should not hesitate solemnly to pledge themselves to respect and obey them. We should then know with greater certainty what the purposes of all the belligerents really are.

In a book on "The War of Democracy," Viscount Bryce, whose writings and personality are held in very high esteem in this country, employs in the subtitle the expression, "the struggle for a new Europe." What, then, is this new Europe to be for which, as Lord Bryce would have us believe, the Entente Allies are struggling? Does it merely involve some changes in political geography? Thoughtful men will not be satisfied with that, for the mere shifting of frontiers, however reasonable it may seem at the time, has no guarantee of permanence except by means of armed force until a better system of international relations is adopted. Or is it for a mere form of government that the Allies are contending? Who then has the authority to impose upon Europe a particular kind of polity, and who can assure us that democracy, if made universal, would always be wise and just and peaceable? No, it is something deeper than these outward changes that this experienced historian and statesman has in mind when he speaks of "the fundamental significance of the struggle for a new Europe." "The present war," he insists, "differs from all that have gone before it not only in its vast scale and in the volume of misery it has brought upon the world, but also in the fact that it is a war of principles, and a war in which the permanent interests not merely of the belligerent powers,

but of all nations, are involved as such interests were never involved before."

That the present war is on either side a purely altruistic championship of merely abstract principles cannot, of course, be pretended. On the side of the Entente Allies, as well as on that of the Central Powers, immediate national interests of great consequence are involved. But this does not signify that in its underlying principles and in its ultimate consequences the struggle may not in some sense be an affair of all mankind. Our own country has been already so vitally affected by it, and is now so deeply involved in all of its results, that we cannot regard the fate of these principles with indifference. What is truly surprising to us in this country is that two great empires, England and Russia, and the French Republic, which has twice quelled the spirit of imperialism within itself and reasserted its love of freedom, are now all engaged in promoting the cause of democracy. Suddenly, through the mysterious working of some intangible but all-pervading and overmastering influence, we have witnessed this unexpected alignment of nations, in which there is an almost general repudiation of the past, a reassertion of the larger claims of humanity, and a spirit of sacrifice that is an astonishment to all who behold it. There is yet to be fought a battle more sublime than any ever yet waged in the name of democracy, because it will be a battle for that which gives to democracy its indestructible vitality—the essential dignity of the human person, and its inherent right to freedom, to justice, and to the quality of mercy at the hands of one's fellow men. This is no tribal adventure, no thrust for territorial expansion, no quest for new markets and undeveloped resources, no aspiration for world supremacy; but a consolidated human demand that in the future the world be so regulated that innocent and non-combatant peoples may live under the protection of law, may depend upon the sanctity of treaties, may be secure in their independence and rights of self-government, and that the people of all nations may enjoy in safety the use of the great seas and oceans which nature has provided as the highways of peaceful commerce and fruitful human intercourse.

In its beginning the European War was undoubtedly a conflict of national and racial interests, a struggle for the future control of the Balkan Peninsula and the debris of the disintegrating Ottoman Empire. Was the prize to be possessed by the Teuton or the Slav? The assassination at Sarajevo and the part in it attributed to Serbia were only signals and excuses for the beginning of a drama already carefully staged and in which the parts were supposed to be carefully assigned. Germany intended that it should be a swift, short war, in which the principal prize would be won by a comparatively small effort, and others incidentally acquired. But interests were affected and forces were evoked that had not entered into the calculations of the aggressors. It was the unexpected emergence of these new forces, and the nature of the resistance met with in the course of the war, that entirely changed its character, and converted it into a war of principles; for the progress of the conflict disclosed an antithesis of conceptions regarding matters of general human interest that had hitherto been unsuspected. The whole system of law, treaties, and human obligations which had been counted upon as furnishing a sure foundation for civilized society was suddenly discovered to be without solidity. In the general débacle the hopes, the beliefs, even the friendships, with which the present century had opened so auspiciously in matters international were suddenly swept away. It is needless to dwell upon barbarities on land and sea that a few years ago would have been utterly incredible. Our thoughts must take a deeper direction. We must face the fact that we have not to deal with mere incidents, but with the underlying causes of which they are the outward expression. If the postulates of economic imperialism are correct, there is nothing abnormal in all this destruction, desecration, and slaughter at which the minds and consciences of many have revolted; for upon this assumption, sovereign power is acting wholly within its rights, and is even engaged in the solemn execution of its sacred duty. There is, therefore, upon this assumption, nothing left to us but to arm, mine, fortify, and entrench, repudiating internationalism and trusting solely to our physical instruments of defense. In truth, there are before the nations only two alternatives: on the one hand, the reestablishment of international existence

upon a more solid foundation than that afforded by military rivalry and the supremacy of national power, and, on the other, a return to the life of troglodytes. If the world is to escape permanent international anarchy, it will be through the decision of governments to accept and loyally respect certain principles of justice and mutual obligation in the form of a constitution of civilization in which are recognized the reciprocal rights and duties of separate nations. It is within the capacity of a few great powers to adopt and maintain such principles; and they will do so whenever the masses of the people, speaking in their sovereign right, declare that their governments must accept and conform to them. If this is what Lord Bryce means, when he speaks of the "War of Democracy," then he is voicing an appeal to all thoughtful persons in every civilized nation; for the democratic conception, based as it is on the rights of man, is the only true source of law for the rights of states also, and is alone adapted to that general extension which opens a vision of a commonwealth of mankind in which all nations, regardless of territorial boundaries, may rightfully claim a place.

Are there, then, any nations that are prepared to be guided by this vision, to forego the aspiration for world supremacy, and to unite with one another in the creation of such a general commonwealth?

It is an interesting fact not only that the people of Russia have overthrown autocracy, but that, in the midst of a great crisis, another power which the world has regarded as imperial should openly recognize the truth that it has, by the forces of its own national development, ceased to be an "empire" in the old sense of the word, and has become a confraternity of free and virtually self-governing communities.

The present war has revealed to Great Britain, and made it evident to all the world, that British strength does not at present consist in the exercise of an *imperium*, but in the recognition of the essential freedom and the equal rights of what the most authoritative British statesmen now call the "autonomous colonies"; and it is especially interesting to find a conservative, like Bonar Law, saying that what was impossible before the war will be easy after it, and that the re-

lation of the dominions to the mother-country would never again be what it was before. It is, in fact, a confederation of autonomous self-governing republics, rather than an empire in the proper sense, that is coming into existence through this internal transformation of the British Empire. Common aims, common safety, common interests, and common ideas—these are the foundations of this confraternity. It is not the bugle-call of imperial command that has brought troops from every quarter of the globe to participate with Great Britain in the present struggle, but the common conviction that democracy is in danger and that free nations must stand together. An English historian, in the midst of the war, writes:

“This is a testing time for Democracy. The people of Great Britain and the Dominions, to whom all the world looks as trustees, together with France and America, of the great democratic tradition, are brought face to face, for the first time, with their full responsibility as British citizens. Upon the way in which that responsibility is realized and discharged depends the future of the democratic principle, not only in these islands, but throughout the world.”

And this is the conviction of the dominions themselves. To the astonishment of the world, not one has failed to respond. Sir Clifford Sifton said in an address at Montreal:

“Bound by no constitution, bound by no law, equity, or obligation, Canada has decided as a nation to make war. We have levied an army; we have sent the greatest army to England that has ever crossed the Atlantic, to take part in the battles of England. We have placed ourselves in opposition to great world powers. We are now training and equipping an army greater than the combined forces of Wellington and Napoleon at the battle of Waterloo.”

Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and even India, have responded voluntarily in a similar manner; but they did so not as imperial possessions, but as virtually independent nations, sure of themselves, confident of their future, and inspired by the vision of a union in which for all coming time they are to be free and independent participants. From the uttermost parts of the earth they have gathered “to honor their uncovenanted bond, obedient to one uncalculating purpose; and the fields of their final achievement, where they lie in a fel-

lowship too close and a peace too deep to be broken, are the image and the epitome of the cause for which they fell."

But in all this fine consciousness of British unity there is not the slightest touch of really imperial influence. The Canadian and the Australian do not wish to be rated as Englishmen, and would sometimes even resent it. Common traditions there are; but they are not merely traditions of race, of language, or religion. They are primarily traditions of liberty. It is not the state that holds them together; it is the conviction that all that makes the state worth saving is the protection it affords to freedom, the value it gives to the individual life.

But such an inspiration can never end in a stolid and pertinacious tribalism. It feels a larger kinship and seeks a wider partnership. It gives unity to the nation, but it reaches out for international friendships and affinities. It seeks to establish the greater commonwealth of nations. It aspires to a place in a system. And the same Canadian who said that Canada was ready to take part in the battles of England said at the same time: "I say to you that Canada must stand now as a nation. . . . The nations will say, if you can levy armies to make war, you can attend to your own business, and we will not be referred to the head of the Empire; we want you to answer our questions directly."

By the force of its own free development democracy must become international. In no other way can it realize its own security. In no other way can it attain to its own ideals. "It is necessary," says a Canadian writer, "to declare with utmost haste . . . that motives of national aggrandisement and national enmity must be subordinated to the desire for the larger benefits growing out of peace and international goodwill." And never will the autonomous colonies enter a war in the name of the empire in which they do not have a voice. Said the high commissioner of the Australian Commonwealth, Mr. Andrew Fisher, on his arrival in London:

"If I had stayed in Scotland, I should have been able to heckle my member on questions of imperial policy, and to vote for or against him on that ground. I went to Australia, and I have been prime minister. But all the time I have had no say whatever about imperial policy—no say whatever. Now that can't go on. There must be some change."

In April, 1916, at the conference of the Entente Allies held at Paris, the sense of a commonwealth took a wider range, and this meeting, it has been held, assumed the form of "a legislative parliament of France, Russia, England, Italy, Belgium, Serbia, Japan, and the self-governing British Dominions." The subject of interest was financial solidarity during the present war, and even after it. Some of the exclusiveness that marked that conference may vanish, and will certainly be diminished after the war is over; but it may well be that, "if the agreements growing out of this event stand the test of time, they will dispose effectively of the contention that dissimilar nations cannot act in harmony for their mutual advantage in matters international."

Three of these nations, Britain, France, and Russia, are henceforth to be bound together as at the beginning of the war it was never imagined they could ever be by a new sense of the value and the meaning of democracy. They will be in relations that will enable them after the war to dispense with military action except for their common defense. With the sincere support of other nations for common purposes, there should be no room in the world for economic imperialism in its existing form. Deplorable, indeed, would be a further and more powerfully organized example of it by prohibition of commercial intercourse, which would be, in effect, an indefinite prolongation of international strife on economic lines. But such a purpose is not in the highest interest of these powers; and, when this comes to be duly considered in the treaties of peace it may happily be averted.

Taking all its past into account, it would be impossible to exempt the British Empire from the charge of economic imperialism. No nation has ever been more constantly actuated by the spirit of commercialism sustained by military force than the British. The fault is frankly admitted by its own historians. Professor Ramsay Muir says:

"This motive has been present in many of our own wars; it has been the predominant motive with us perhaps more often than with any other people, from the time when we fought to overthrow the Spanish monopoly of the tropical West, to the time when we waged two wars with China in order to force open the gates of that vast market."

But Great Britain has learned the lesson of experience. It is not just to blame a progressive and liberal people for the actions of the past, when other standards of conduct were generally accepted, and when national rivalry was necessitated by the conditions of the time. The pressing question is, Shall these conditions be perpetuated? Great Britain now answers, "No."

The Imperial German Government alleges that prior to 1914 there was a conspiracy headed by Great Britain, to suppress "the liberty of national evolution" of the German Empire and to deny "the freedom of the seas."

What then is meant by "the liberty of national evolution" and "the freedom of the seas"?

Aiming to become a world power, Germany has desired to possess a free hand in acquiring territory in all parts of the world, without being subject to the restraint of other powers. Portions of every continent are marked on the map as future German possessions. "The German Empire," says Franz von Liszt, "has not yet acquired the title of a World Power, for it is far from being comparable with Great Britain and Russia, either by the number of its inhabitants or the independence of its economic life. Still less can Austria-Hungary pretend to this title." To obtain it is, however, he thinks, a legitimate aspiration of the Central empires. There will, of course, he admits, be opposition by other nations; but the goal is worthy of the effort. "The supremacy of the world," he says, "belongs to the Power which by its geographic configuration, the extent of its territory, and the number of its population, possesses a complete economic independence." The Germans claim this as their rightful inheritance. Their strength, they consider, gives them a title to it. They are self-avowed contestants for world supremacy.

And "the freedom of the seas," what does that imply? It signifies, as the Imperial German Government understands it, the unrestrained privilege of obtaining a colonial empire by means of maritime strength.

To realize such an ambition there must be left no rival on the sea who would be able to prevent it. Speaking of the sea power of England, a German writer says:

"The war between her and us . . . turns upon the mastery of the seas, and the priceless values bound up with that; and a co-existence of the two States, of which many Utopians dream, is ruled out as definitely as was the co-existence of Rome and Carthage. The antagonism between England and Germany will, therefore, remain until one of them is finally brought to the ground".

It is this incessant invocation of war and the indisposition to accept the possibility of peace that have made it so difficult for foreign peoples to understand the mind of Germany, or for those who wish to be friends to explain and defend the German attitude toward other nations. Even the German emperor himself has not hesitated to throw out a challenge to all the maritime powers. "I will never rest," he has said, "until I have raised my navy to a position similar to that occupied by my army." And the reason for this determination he frankly declares in the words: "Germany's colonial aims can only be gained when Germany has become lord of the ocean."

What, prior to August, 1914, had Great Britain done to call forth an accusation of irreconcilable hostility? No foreboding of such antagonism existed in 1890, when, for the protectorate of Zanzibar, Great Britain surrendered the island of Helgoland to Germany; or in 1895, when that stronghold became the fortified gate of the Kiel Canal at its North Sea terminus. Even when the first extensive naval legislation was enacted in Germany, in 1900, it created no great disturbance in England. The first indication that British apprehension was aroused was the building of the earliest "dreadnoughts" by England in 1905. But even in 1907 Germany was making cordial public professions of faith in her English rival's fairness and generosity. "Everywhere in the world," said a representative of the imperial German foreign office, in May of that year, to a delegation of British journalists, "where Great Britain has brought any country under her influence, she has never suppressed the trade developments in other lands, as many nations have to their own detriment. You have always devoted your energies and labors to the opening up of the country's sources of production, bringing it nearer to civilization and progress. You have never excluded other states from territories under British influence, but allowed them to

go along with you. This policy of yours is now celebrating one of its greatest triumphs in Egypt."

In the following summer occurred the second conference at The Hague. Great Britain proposed the limitation of armaments on the sea, but in deference to the wishes of the German delegates the proposal was given formal sepulture, with solemn funeral rites conducted in a spirit of friendly consideration by the Russian president of the conference.

The eager interest of German military circles in the construction of the Zeppelin airships in 1908 no doubt really disturbed the British mind; for here was a device which, it was believed in Germany, would be able to float in triumph over the British fleet and bring to terms the coast towns of the island and even London itself. But England, under a Liberal ministry, was not inclined to war, and renewed the proposal of a holiday in fleet-building, reinforced by the importunities of the United States. In 1914 a treaty had amicably regulated the affair of the Bagdad railway. Even as late as July 29, 1914, three days before the German declaration of war, Great Britain was so far from being considered in Germany as the arch-conspirator in bringing about war that the Imperial German Government sought and expected Great Britain's complete neutrality in the war it then intended to declare on Russia and France, on condition that Germany would take from France only her colonies and leave undisturbed her territorial integrity on the continent. So great at that time was the confidence in England's disinclination for war that it was believed she would passively consent to Germany's forcible appropriation of the French colonies without even a *pourboire* in compensation for this indulgence.

It may be useful to recall what the conditions actually were when the German emperor on August 1, 1914, declared war on Russia. Dismissing from our minds for the moment all questions regarding the underlying causes of the war, and without at this time attempting to pass judgment upon any of the issues involved in it, let us fix our attention upon the military situation as it existed on that fateful day when the whole mechanism of European security suddenly broke down.

We may pass over the ultimatum to Serbia, Austria's invasion of Serbian territory, and Russia's resolve to protect

the small Slav state or procure a hearing for its case as a question of European interest by which armed conflict might, perhaps, have been avoided. On August 1, the German emperor had in his hands the following documents:

1. A telegram from the Czar, dated July 30, reading:

"The military measures which have now come into force were decided five days ago for reasons of defense and on account of Austria's preparations. I hope from all my heart that these won't in any way interfere with your part as mediator, which I greatly value."

2. A telegraphic instruction by Sir Edward Grey, dated July 30, directing Sir Edward Goschen, the British ambassador at Berlin, to say to the imperial German chancellor: "most earnestly," that "the one way of maintaining the good relations between England and Germany is that they should continue to work together to preserve the peace of Europe; if we succeed in this object, the mutual relations of Germany and England will, I believe, be *ipso facto* improved and strengthened. . . . And I will say this: If the peace of Europe can be preserved, and the present crisis safely passed, my own endeavor will be to promote some arrangement to which Germany could be a party, by which she could be assured that no aggressive or hostile policy would be pursued against her or her allies by France, Russia and ourselves."

3. A telegram dated July 31, from Mr. Sazonoff, Russian minister for foreign affairs, reading as follows:

"If Austria will agree to check the advance of her troops on Serbian territory; if, recognizing that the dispute between Austria and Serbia has become a question of European interest, she will allow the Great Powers to look into the matter and decide what satisfaction Serbia could afford to the Austro-Hungarian Government without impairing her rights as a sovereign State or her independence, Russia will undertake to maintain her waiting attitude."

4. A telegram of July 31 from Sir Edward Grey, reading:

"If Germany could get any reasonable proposal put forward which made it clear that Germany and Austria were striving to preserve European peace and that Russia and France would be unreasonable if they rejected it, I would support it at St. Petersburg and Paris, and go the length of saying that if Russia and France would not accept it, His

Majesty's Government would have nothing more to do with the consequences.

5. A telegram from Count Berchtold, minister for foreign affairs of Austria-Hungary to all Austro-Hungarian embassies and legations, dated July 31, to be communicated to all governments, reading:

"Negotiations dealing with the situation are proceeding between the cabinets at Vienna and St. Petersburg, and we still hope that they may lead to a general understanding."

In these circumstances, on August 1, the German emperor, having received no reply to his demand that Russian mobilization should cease within twelve hours, declared war on Russia, thus automatically involving France, Russia's ally, although knowing that France did not desire war. The sole reason given for this action was that Russia had not at that time ceased the mobilization of her army in defense of Serbia against Austria's attack, there being no direct quarrel between Russia and Germany. How unjust was the ultimatum sent on the previous day to Russia, is shown by the telegram of the German emperor to King George, on August 1, the day he declared war on Russia. The telegram was sent under the impression, which proved erroneous, that Great Britain was ready to guarantee the neutrality of France; yet the German emperor declared that it was "too late" to stop the mobilization begun on that day! The telegram reads:

"I have just received the communication of your Government offering French neutrality under the guarantee of Great Britain. To this offer there was added the question whether, under these conditions, Germany would refrain from attacking France. For technical reasons the mobilization which I have already ordered this afternoon on two fronts—east and west—must proceed according to the arrangements made. A counter order cannot now be given, as your telegram unfortunately came too late; but if France offers me her neutrality, which must be guaranteed by the English army and navy, I will naturally give up the idea of an attack on France and employ my troops elsewhere. I hope that France will not be nervous. The troops on my frontier are at this moment being kept back by telegraph and by telephone from crossing the French frontier. WILLIAM.

No one of these nations, it is alleged, desired a general war, and yet it came as a matter of military necessity! "I hope

France will not be nervous. The troops on my frontier are *at this* moment being held back by telegraph and telephone from crossing the French frontier." And, according to Berlin, mobilization had not even been ordered until five o'clock of that same day!

What a white light is poured by this last telegram upon the mechanism of destruction that had been so laboriously prepared! Only one man in Europe who could stop the war, and he caught in the fatal toils of his own machinery! For technical reasons, telegram too late, German troops held back on the French frontier by telegraph and telephone—I hope France will not be nervous. But why this solicitude for the nerves of France? Was Germany also nervous?

I am making here no accusation. What I wish to emphasize is that the machinery for preserving peace had not been sufficiently organized, while the machinery of war had become so efficient as to be virtually uncontrollable. No one, we are assured, wanted war. All wanted peace. Serbia wanted justice. So also, it is said, did Austria. But Europe had not provided for justice to a small state.

The time has come when Europe should reassert its moral unity and make an end of tribalism. All the machinery for international coöperation already exists, and needs only the adjustment of it to the purposes of peace. The railways and the steamships that have facilitated the mobilization of troops and munitions of war, the telegraphic lines which have transmitted the orders setting great armies in motion, the vast factories that have been forging instruments of destruction, are already there, waiting to convey the merchandise, communicate the messages, and produce the commodities of peace. The one thing lacking is the effective organization of international justice. Let it once be agreed that each people shall be secure in its freedom and independence, and that nations may be as sure of justice as are individual men in a well-organized state, and the transformation would be already accomplished.

Depending, as it does, upon good faith, this regeneration is essentially an inner process in the minds and souls of men. It cannot be imposed from without. It cannot be forced upon one nation by another. It cannot be effected by fighting. It

will never come as the spontaneous act of governments. It must come from the overwhelming determination of the people of many nations to have it so.

The real testing time of democracy will be the moment of victory; for victory there must be, and yet a victory that is not a conquest. If the claims of democracy in this war are to be accepted, it is intended to be a defense of the conquered against the conqueror, a protest against the ordeal of battle as the decisive factor in determining the fate of nations. To invert the rôles would be to abandon the cause. If there is to be a commonwealth of nations, the Central Powers should not be excluded from it except by their own will. The first article in a treaty of peace should be a statement of the principles for which we are now fighting in this war and the establishment of a commonwealth based upon them. Respect for treaties, the rights of the small states, the rule of law, the abandonment of conquest, the right of a people to choose its affiliations, the ultimate extinction of militarism as a system, the submission of justiciable differences to a competent tribunal, the responsibility of states to the society of states—these are the essential terms of a durable treaty of peace. If this can be attained, there will indeed be a new Europe.

Should a nation wait to be vanquished before accepting such a peace? Is it not the only peace in which any nation can place its trust? Against any other the vanquished would be in perpetual revolt. But in such a peace all men would at the same time have the support of their own sense of justice and secure the realization of their own highest ideals. It would be to all the peoples of Europe like a proclamation of emancipation. With it would come the joy of liberty, the sense of security, the flood-tide of human fellowship. For such a peace the mighty host of the dead on land and sea might well rejoice if they could know that they had bought it with their lives.

FINANCIAL RECONSTRUCTION AFTER THE WAR

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The task of financial reconstruction after the war will present problems which at this distance promise to be a great perplexity. The exigencies of the war have brought about important changes in the relationships existing between individuals and social groups, and I take it that "financial reconstruction" means a readjustment of these relations to a normal working basis, presumably about as they existed before the war, or with such changes as the general influence of the war upon society may have permanently effected.

Some people are expecting radical changes in the organization of society as a result of the war—an overturning of the existing order. They think that the relations between capital and labor will be very different from what they have been in the past, that by some rearrangement of the industrial organization there will be a more even distribution of wealth. As a rule those who hold this view have always held a sentimental belief that the wage-earning class was "exploited" and had only to assert its power to come into control of industry and enjoy a much larger share of the product. Believing this, they look upon the present crisis as a favorable opportunity for the revolution which they have advocated. On the other hand, those who believe that society, instead of being artificially organized or arbitrarily held in existing relations, is what it is as the result of the free play of evolutionary forces, do not look for sudden changes. They believe that the entire community gains by the accumulation of wealth, no matter who owns it, and that comparisons and deductions as to the common welfare drawn simply from the ownership of wealth are fallacious; that the development of the means of production and the general progress of society have been greater under the incentives and stimulus that have been afforded to individual exertion than would have been the case under any system of arbitrary management and distribution.

Holding this view, and trusting in the practical common sense of the people to discern and adhere to the policy which will yield the best results for all classes, they expect the course of events in the future to be governed by recognized economic principles, as in the past. Constant change and progress in community life, through the growth of intelligence and capacity among the people, and by the development of what Emerson called "facility of association," i. e. ability to work harmoniously together, we may hope for and expect.

One of the most obvious problems to be met is that of dealing with the vast body of indebtedness that will confront all of the countries which have been at war. A new balance must be established in the national budgets and enormous new revenues found for this purpose. Upon its face this necessity appears a most formidable one. In the European countries the interest charges upon the national debts alone now exceed the total expenditures under the pre-war budgets, and amount to one-half or more of the estimated annual capital accumulations of those countries before the war. Furthermore, there will be heavy after-the-war expenditures for pensions, rehabilitation, etc., and there has been an increase of provincial and municipal indebtedness. Moreover, the war continues, and indebtedness is increasing faster than ever. How is it possible, the incredulous ask, that taxation to carry such burdens can be borne?

Upon analysis, however, it will be found that the real situation is nothing like so desperate as appears upon the surface. In the first place it must be considered that this public indebtedness is held for the most part within the countries which owe it, and therefore that all payments upon it are income to the same population, and subject to taxation as such. If all incomes from holdings of the public debt, in Germany for example, were to be taxed 100 per cent., of course the Treasury income and outgo would practically balance without any taxation upon other property. It is not to be supposed that incomes from the debt will be taxed anything like 100 per cent., but the supposition serves to illustrate the fact that for purposes of taxation the debt itself is a new source of revenue, and that this very greatly alleviates the gravity of the situation.

If objection is made to this statement on the ground that the debt itself is unproductive and hence cannot be the source of means for paying itself, the answer is that debt-payment by taxation is simply a redistribution of wealth. There is no consumption or reduction of wealth in the process. Although there are problems and difficulties about such redistribution it is a vital error to conceive of such payments as effecting the destruction or extinguishment of the property transferred. It is true that the values for which the war debts were created were destroyed during the war, but that destruction is past, and done with. There is no further destruction year by year as the interest on the debts is paid. The capital so transferred remains capital in the hands of the recipients, presumably passes into use, and is subject to the economic laws which effect a distribution of the benefits of wealth throughout the community.

The problem of carrying or paying the debts, therefore, is essentially a fiscal problem, *i. e.* a problem of financial adjustments and arrangements. It is not, as most people appear to think, a problem of providing annually a sum of new capital to be sunk unproductively and beyond recovery. The difficulties to be dealt with do not relate to a loss of wealth in the aggregate, but to the fact that the debt is not held by all, and consequently that while all presumably will bear a portion of the taxation the payments will go in proportionate shares to comparatively few. It is said that, as the rich are the largest subscribers to the loans and will therefore be the chief recipients of interest payments, the effect of the war will be to make the rich richer, and the poor poorer.

This leaves out of account a factor in normal distribution which is recognized by economists, although almost wholly ignored in popular discussion. There is a natural relationship between the amount of new capital available for investment from year to year and the demand for labor and the general wage-level. This is true because capital cannot be placed in productive use except through the employment of labor. Capital and labor are joint factors in enterprise and neither can be used without the other. The situation is what it always must be when there are two necessary ingredients dependent upon each other: if the supply of one increases

faster than the supply of the other, the one most plentiful will lose, and the one which is growing scarce will gain, in relation to the other. If the income of the employing class increases from any source, the owners will be in the market for labor to that additional extent, and the new demand will inevitably have its effect upon the wage-level.

In short, there is a natural equilibrium in the industrial world between the supply of labor and the effective demand, and that equilibrium fixes the natural wage level. We see an extraordinary demand for labor at the present time, due to the urgent war needs, and wages have advanced rapidly under this influence. This is an exceptional situation, but in normal times the growth of capital creates of itself an increased demand for labor and is the chief factor in advancing wages, thus automatically accomplishing a larger distribution to the wage-earning class. The influence is not precise in its effects upon individuals, but it is as inevitable in its general effects throughout the industrial world as the action of the moon upon the tides of the sea.

In the event, then, of undue taxation at the expense of the consuming masses, and swelling the incomes of the investing classes, a readjustment of wages upon a higher level through natural influences would be only a question of time. Doubtless the rise would not have to wait wholly upon natural influences. Labor would vigorously contend for it and have justice, popular opinion and economic law all on its side. The danger to be feared would be that in the confusion of such a readjustment there might be a period of disorganization and depression, demoralizing to industry and affecting unfavorably the incomes of all classes. There cannot be full prosperity for either class except as the natural equilibrium is restored upon which there is full prosperity for all.

It will be the part of wisdom therefore so to adjust taxation as to disturb the natural balance in the slightest degree possible. As yet but little war taxation has been placed upon necessities. Up to this time it is a question whether the rise of general wages has kept pace with the rise of prices; but when the war is over, and millions of men go back to production, it may be expected that general living costs will decline faster than wages. The wage-earner will be in the advan-

tageous position of contending for the existing wage scale, while the prices of household supplies are falling. If he is successful in holding a good share of his gains, the war taxes which have been imposed will not be a serious burden to him.

Doubtless, taxation will be heavy upon all incomes from capital but it is highly improbable that there will be any discrimination against capital which has been loaned to the several governments by investment in the war loans. This would be equivalent to penalizing patriotism, and it would not be a popular policy anywhere. Money raised by taxation upon incomes and returned to the public through interest payments on the public debt will not impoverish a people. It may be supplemented by heavy taxation upon the luxuries of all classes without oppressive effects. The modern field of non-essentials is wide enough to afford the basis of large revenues.

An interesting situation will exist after the war in the relations between the United States and the debtor nations who are now borrowing heavily here, notably Great Britain, France, Italy and the lesser Allies. This indebtedness already aggregates over \$5,000,000,000, with an annual interest charge of approximately \$250,000,000, and upon the present outlook it may easily reach \$10,000,000,000, with an annual interest charge of \$500,000,000. How will this interest charge be paid, not to speak of the principal? I am not raising any question as to the ability of these countries to collect the sums mentioned from their people by the usual methods of taxation, but how will the Government of the United States receive payment and distribute the amounts among its own bond-holders in this country? Certainly it will not receive annually \$500,000,000 in gold, for the entire production of gold in the world outside of the United States is not more than \$400,000,000. Shall we receive it in goods, the products of the debtor countries, increasing our importations by this amount? There may be some difficulty about determining what class of goods shall be admitted in competition with American producers. Or shall we be obliged to resort to the policy of capitalizing the interest payments as they fall due, and of investing them abroad, either in more government obligations, or in private enterprises, thus building up the industries and resources of those countries? The policy which

would seem to promise the best results to us would be that of intelligent reciprocity in trade, by which our industries would be advantageously integrated to those of other countries, and we should be able to receive from our debtor nations the products of their industries, devoting our labor to other lines.

Following our Civil War the most serious problem of reconstruction was found to be in the relations between debtor and creditor classes—or, to put it more broadly, between those whose incomes were fixed in terms of money, while their payments were dependent upon commodity prices, and those whose payments were fixed, while their incomes were dependent upon general prices. If a great volume of indebtedness is incurred on a high level of prices, the debtor presumably receives less value than in normal times, and if when the date of payment comes prices have fallen he is obliged to give a much larger volume of commodities in settlement. The volume of bank loans is very large at the present time. In the United States from June 30, 1914, to June 30, 1917, the loans of all banks and trust companies increased in the sum of \$5,305,870,805, or approximately 33 per cent. Much of this, however, is represented by an increase of inventories and goods in transit, and would rapidly disappear in a period of liquidation without serious results. Real estate indebtedness has increased but little during the war. The burden of private indebtedness does not at this time appear to be threatening.

The most interesting factor of all in the problem of recovery from the effects of the war is the possible gain in the productive capacity of the industries by improvements in methods of production. If this is as great as it may easily be under a system of harmonious and highly co-ordinated industry, with all elements working together intelligently to accomplish the best results, all of the problems which look serious from the approach will readily dissolve and disappear, just as the bread problem disappears when we have 30 bushels to the acre instead of 15, and the clothing problem disappears when we have a 16,000,000 bale crop of cotton instead of a 10,000,000 bale crop.

The debt which Great Britain inherited from the Napoleonic wars was greater in proportion to the productive powers of the country at that time than even the colossal

debt which it will have at the end of this war is likely to be in relation to the present capacity for production. The Napoleonic debt was never paid off, but it steadily dwindled in importance, as related to the annual wealth-production of the country, until it was insignificant.

Modern industry at the beginning of this war was in the full tide of a period of mechanical development which not only had never been equalled but never approached. It is sometimes said that no such revolutionary invention as the steam engine, whose development followed the Napoleonic wars, can happen again; but the efficiency of the steam locomotive has been doubled in the last few years. In the ten years from 1904 to 1914 the amount of capital employed in manufacturing establishments in the United States increased 80 per cent. and the amount of power employed increased 67 per cent. while the population increased about 20 per cent. No indebtedness inherited from the past amounts to much with a people whose productive capacity is increasing at this rate, especially in view of the fact that the indebtedness, whatever it may be, is not payable to our ancestors but to ourselves.

We have a demonstration now in war time of how the productiveness of all the industries may be enormously increased by the full employment of our people and by a conscious patriotic purpose to achieve the largest results for the good of the country. The same motive should hold good after the war. It will mean, then, instead of a great production of munitions and war-equipment, a great production of the things wanted for common consumption, and a higher standard of living for all.

The period of reconstruction will be one of peril, because of the uncertainties which will be present, and which always cause men to hesitate and move cautiously, feeling their way and waiting upon each other. For a period of enterprise and prosperity there must be general confidence and team-work. When the war-business comes to an end, there will be a reorganization of the industries and an extensive displacement of labor, attended by risk that all may not promptly find employment. At best there will be a transition period of change, uncertainty and anxiety. Commodity prices will undoubtedly

fall, causing dealers to buy cautiously and producers to look carefully to their costs, and perhaps to seek a downward readjustment of wages. The whole situation, while in need of highly practical treatment, will be complicated by all the theories and controversies extant, touching taxation and the relations between capital and labor. Evidently the situation will be one calling for constructive leadership.

It is certain that there will be in all countries a vast amount of work needing to be done, enough to give employment at good pay to all the labor available; it is wholly a question of sustaining confidence among employers and investors, and of intelligent organization and direction. The situation is too delicate and the emergency too serious for matters to be allowed to drift. This is recognized abroad, and Great Britain has established a Ministry and Parliamentary Committee upon Reconstruction, who are busy upon plans for transferring the soldiers as they are demobilized directly to the pay-rolls of going enterprises.

In the United States the railway situation offers a ready opportunity for a similar policy. It is a familiar fact that a great amount of work needs to be done upon the roads, and they are now under government control and direction. Besides what must be done to provide the increased facilities immediately required, there is the possibility of increasing their efficiency and achieving large economies by electrification. The substitution of electric power for steam, and particularly by the utilization of water powers, would mean a program of widespread expenditures extending over several years. It would be enough in itself to put a backbone into the entire industrial situation. This is merely illustrative of the policy of providing a definite program of constructive work, which will give employment to the country's industrial equipment and labor force and add to its productive capacity in the future. There will be no trouble about financial reconstruction if we can have all our industrial forces working as vigorously upon the production of permanent wealth and the comforts of life as they are now working upon war materials. Such an amount of new wealth pouring into the channels of distribution will go far toward the solution of all problems and controversies.

AN AMERICAN CLEARING HOUSE AS AN AID TO SELF-RESTORATION IN WAR STRICKEN COUNTRIES

BY GROSVENOR ATTERBURY
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This may seem an inopportune moment in which to discuss questions concerning the reconstruction and restoration of the devastated countries of Europe. But the very fact that our entire effort and resources are so obviously required in the prosecution of the war emphasizes the need of scrutinizing every effort or expenditure directed to any other purpose no matter how laudable it be.

This, together with the necessity of insuring against any misunderstanding of the feelings of our Allies in this matter of restoration, raises the question whether there is not already needed some means through which the real and most pressing desires of Belgium and France can be determined, made articulate, and in their behalf expressed authoritatively to America.

With the re-occupation of allied territory will come the possibility of the reconstruction of the devastated areas. This work, however, is of two kinds,—first, the emergency or first aid work, and secondly, the permanent restoration. To a certain degree they will overlap, but both in principle and actual means of prosecution the two classes of work are substantially different.

The first aid work, consisting in the emergency housing of the unsheltered refugees, and the first aid measures to serve their vital physical needs, is, as a matter of fact, being undertaken by the American Red Cross. Mr. Davison, however, informs us that their work is to be confined to this emergency reconstruction only. There will be on the other hand, an increasing appeal in France and Belgium for the permanent type of work and there is already beginning an active response here, in America, by various individuals and

organizations throughout the country. These instances of reconstructive effort are very rapidly increasing both in number and scope.

The appeal of permanent reconstructive work is second only to that of the Red Cross for emergency relief, and in certain ways far more satisfying. Unless it is co-ordinated and directed in some such way as it is now being done in the case of the emergency relief work of the Red Cross, it will undoubtedly express itself in countless individual uncorrelated efforts, inevitably meaning less of effectiveness, if not serious miscarriage of the best intentions. The activity of Mr. Hearst, who is now organizing through his newspapers a reconstruction organization into which he is trying to draw the most prominent people in the country seems a very pertinent illustration of the need of a strong organization which should primarily investigate, prevent or stimulate, as well as co-ordinate all existing or proposed activities of this kind.

Above all things, the work of restoration in such countries as France and Belgium must be, as far as possible, directed and effected by these nations themselves. That they propose to do this is abundantly evident. Both governments have appointed government officials to organize the reconstruction work, and there exists in France at least one organization, headed by the ablest and most responsible men in the country, who have for the past two or three years been engaged in preparing a complete program and organization for the guidance of the national work of reconstruction in the devastated areas. In speaking of this work, this French association proposes that the reconstruction be not a mere replacement, stone for stone, of what existed before, but a "renaissance" which shall be the result of thorough study and consideration of all that is best in the various departments—constructional, hygienic, social and economic. It provides, therefore, for a kind of Clearing House or "Bureau de Documentation" in France through which all such information and advice may be available in formulating the program for actual reconstruction, and in so doing, assumes the coöperation of this country as one of the chief sources of help.

It is to meet conditions, therefore, which appear plainly to call for it that the proposal is made to organize an American

Clearing House for Allied Restoration. My suggestion is that this organization should be in the nature of an adjunct, or correspondent, of the French and other allied bodies, governmental or otherwise; that it be organized, section by section, after the model of the French scheme of organization, and that the direction of its activities should substantially follow the suggestions and requirements of the nations where the reconstruction work is to be done.

Its principal functions would be, in general:

1. To investigate and record for the information of the public the status and purposes of the various reconstruction organizations existing or proposed in this country.
2. To discourage and prevent premature or unwise efforts in this line.
3. To present to this country a program based upon the needs of the devastated countries as formulated by their own official organization.
4. To investigate, study and make recommendations in whatever special lines such program may indicate as desirable.
5. To co-ordinate and bring into harmony with such program, the enthusiasm and material contribution of this country.
6. To stimulate or modify the various activities of this nature in proper relation to other war needs and activities.
7. To eliminate, as far as possible, the exploitation of the devastated countries through speculative and unwise reconstruction and other schemes.

The membership of the organization should consist of the most representative organizations in this country whose activities, knowledge and financial resources render them especially able to perform the functions above mentioned. They should, of course, correspond, as far as possible, to the bodies represented in the French organization, and it would seem as if similarly they should eventually come under the patronage of the government, if not actually co-ordinated under it. The plan should be carried out only with the approval of the governments of the devastated areas.

According to the program of the French association,—“*La Renaissance des Cités*”—the work is divided into three sections, under three commissions, covering respectively:

Theoretical and technical work:—under which falls town planning, sanitation, architecture and construction.

Economic and social work:—which covers all sorts of social welfare and industrial and commercial problems.

Administrative and financial work:—under which fall such matters as legal problems of reconstruction, indemnities, systems of credit and reconstruction financing.

It would seem as if the proper corresponding bodies in this country would be such organizations as the Rockefeller, Carnegie and Sage Foundations, together with certain medical and research bodies representing the hygienic, social and scientific aspects of reconstruction work; the American Institute of Architects; the National Housing Association; the National City Planning Institute; the American Society of Civil Engineers and other allied engineering bodies; the United States Bureau of Standards and such other technical and professional organizations as would properly represent activities required in the physical reconstruction program; together with the proper financial and economic representatives to correspond with the third section of the French program. For purposes of co-ordination with other war activities it would seem wise to have both the government and the Red Cross represented. The financing of such an undertaking might be, to a large extent, supportioned to the several sections, with the idea that the individual organizations would finance their own work in connection with the Clearing House, leaving only the general organization and special activities to be financed from outside sources.

There is, I believe, no question as to the willingness of such representative bodies as I have indicated to combine for the purpose of rendering this service, provided only that two conditions are assured:

First, that the plan be desired by the countries affected; and

Second, that such a confederation or organization can exercise sufficient influence or authority to enable it to perform satisfactorily its proposed functions.

Admitting both the desirability and the feasibility of such a Clearing House or Bureau de Documentation, there remains the question as to what authority is to be invoked to make it operative. Obviously, it is an international matter.

Logically it is a governmental affair. But governments today are of necessity concentrating on war, not on reconstruction. The Red Cross believes it unwise to undertake such a function.

The real problem, therefore, is to find a form of organization that will enable these agencies to guide the efforts of America to aid in the stupendous work of reconstruction along the lines most acceptable and helpful to our European Allies, until this organization can obtain that direct governmental patronage which it must eventually have.

LABOR LAWS IN THE CRUCIBLE

BY JOHN B. ANDREWS

SECRETARY AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

Perhaps no prediction regarding the outcome of the World War has been more uniformly accepted than that when this war is over the masses of the people are to occupy a much more favorable position. To a large part of the world today democracy is the avowed purpose for which the lifeblood of millions is being poured out.

In this great war labor has, of course, furnished the vast majority of the fighters. And as modern military operations have become more and more dependent upon industry, the industrial army has become as vital a factor in national effectiveness as are the fighting forces. The workers in the industries are the second line of defense.

As our belated war preparations drag out their weary months, as emergency shipyards yawn from the marshes, and as coal cars stand congested while supply boats wait for fuel in the harbors, we know that our biggest problem—not only after the war is over, but in winning this war—is the labor problem.

We may profitably consider, therefore, the means by which labor is to become available and effective during the progress of the war, and at the same time discuss the measures by which labor ultimately is to receive its democratic reward for innumerable sacrifices both at home and abroad. Constructive effort, not merely after the war but as a result of the war and while the war is in progress, is the important consideration.

We may rest assured that widespread and lasting improvement in labor's condition will come in two forms, first by means of collective bargaining through trade union action, and, second, by the more comprehensive method of legal enactment, including a train of executive and administrative orders.

Others will deal sufficiently with progress toward industrial democracy through trade unionism. No one familiar with

the traditions and the leadership of the American Federation of Labor will doubt that trade unionism will be pushed forward by the war. Doubtless there will come more democratic shop management, the extension of collective bargaining and the adjustment by discussion of many of the conditions of employment, especially for the organized workers. Even though faced with peculiar difficulties, including the absorption of an army of invading women and a host of unskilled diluting mechanics, organized labor was never in a more advantageous position to assert its wishes and to have its policies adopted. And Mr. Gompers, the very able head of the organized labor movement in America, said recently in a patriotic New Year's appeal to his membership of more than two million: "The time for labor to interpose its needs and contentions is while policies are in the making."

But the greatest sufferers in this war and afterward will be the masses of unorganized men and women who will only indirectly profit from the better bargains of trade unionism. For this vastly larger and comparatively helpless group, the concern of public-spirited citizens interested in the general welfare must be in that form of protection which is to come not directly through the collective bargaining of the labor unions, but through the democratic expression of public opinion in our legislative halls. Political democracy, won by our forefathers and emphasized in later extension of suffrage to working-men and more recently to women, is the present hope of millions of our industrial workers.

Even organized labor's "interposition" may soon take on a political form. Organized labor of our Civil War period, upon finding trade unionism unable to prevent a reduction of wages when war-priced prosperity slumped at the close of that four-year conflict, turned to politics and labor legislation. A somewhat similar political activity may now be foreshadowed by the recent change, from after-election November to the spring, of the annual convention date of the American Federation of Labor. The trend toward political action is likely to be accelerated as a result of the recent Hitchman Coal and Coke Co. and the Eagle Glass and Manufacturing Co. decisions, which may have the effect of permitting organization of trade unions only if the employer

approves. Meanwhile for England, John Maschfield, the official historian of the British army in France, writes: "I predict that our next Parliament will be a Labor Parliament."

Fortunately, the war has placed labor legislation upon a new footing before the country. Men in high places have suddenly recognized that labor laws are not based upon mere sentiment but upon sound economics. They have joined the swelling chorus in demanding that protective standards be maintained in order that output be not decreased.

Unfortunately, our existing labor legislation is very incomplete. Consider for a moment England's relative position in reference to workmen's insurance legislation. She had a system of workmen's compensation for accidents, covering the entire country, and in the midst of war she has increased the cash benefits to injured workmen and their families 25 per cent. She had likewise a system of old age pensions, of invalidity insurance, of health and maternity insurance and insurance against unemployment. As a result of her experience, every proposal for change has been in the direction of greater liberality to the workers.

From England can be drawn an example of preparedness. While her war offensive is at its height, she has inaugurated a series of definite plans for bridging over the period of transition from war to peace. A Ministry of Reconstruction has been formed, whose head is a member of the Cabinet and whose duty is to investigate, plan and to make recommendations regarding problems growing out of the war.

Prominent among the ministry's projects are those for demobilization. It has planned the mustering out of the army according to industrial demands. The men who have positions waiting for them are to be the first dismissed, and the others will be released mainly as openings for them are found. The peace-time occupations of the entire army have been catalogued for use in this connection. Whereas in the United States the selective draft act is to go out of effect within four months after the proclamation of peace, England expects to spend two or three years in disbanding her three million soldiers. The dismissal of munition workers is also to be under organized control, only a few from any one trade being released at a time. As a guide in finding work

for munition makers and soldiers, the Ministry of Reconstruction is canvassing the country, the colonies and abroad, to learn what trade demands will be at the end of the war. Plans are being made to turn war materials and equipment into peace-time uses; motor trucks which have carried ammunition will haul farm products; factories which have made shells will make tools.

Furthermore, when the British army is dismissed, funds and plans for public work will be ready. The Development Commission and the Road Board will be able to begin road-making, afforestation and land improvement. The state is preparing to help cities and towns build 150,000 to 200,000 workmen's dwellings. Another government committee is working out plans for land settlement by soldiers and sailors. Already the committee has asked for money for the first co-operative colony of small farms.

Finally, even if plans for work at the end of the war fail to provide for everyone, the English government is still prepared. For a year after they leave the service, the soldiers will be protected by unemployment insurance. Most of the war workers will also be covered.

In the midst of war England has extended the scope of the unemployment insurance about 50 per cent. As an important factor in the administration of this insurance England had developed before the war a national system of 400 public employment bureaus and now plans to increase the number to 2,000 before the end of the war. This will be about twenty times the present number in this country, although we have twice England's population and twenty-five times the area.

It is scarcely possible to do more than suggest a few of our own shortcomings. But surely it will be agreed that in this field we have most of our work before us. Ours is a work of construction.

For emergency war labor administration, our Federal Department of Labor announced in early January a program that is full of promise. If carried out efficiently and promptly this program will justify the confidence of those who believe that unified authority should be placed in this department of the government and that also concentrated there should be unescapable responsibility.

Surely it will be recognized that far-reaching changes in the management of industry are to be expected and plans of the utmost consequence are to be worked out and put into operation after the war. As practical people, however, we must also consider what are the well thought out steps which we are best prepared to take now.

What then, in the field of labor legislation, is especially needed and feasible in America at this moment?

Fundamental, of course, is regular employment. The usual maladjustments of workers seeking individually for jobs and employers searching unsystematically for men must now be avoided. War has made the immediate adoption of a unified system of labor placement—machinery for intelligent and effective distribution of labor—a matter of national self-preservation. The labor market must be organized through a complete network of public employment bureaus. Such a service—long urged by social workers—organized labor now recognizes is not only an "invaluable adjunct to our war machinery," but is "keenly needed in the transition period that will follow the declaration of peace and the work of demobilization." Here is a vitally necessary means for labor reconstruction as the soldiers and sailors return to industry after the war, a means which is also imperatively needed now in successfully prosecuting the war.

Fortunately the President, through the extraordinary powers entrusted to him for the period of the war, has recently ordered the development of a United States employment service on a war basis. The danger is that the war emergency may be allowed to pass into history without putting the employment service on an adequate permanent basis.

A second means of labor construction is the extension of workmen's compensation. This legislation, at first greeted with suspicion, has within a half dozen years spread over most of the industrial states. Many inadequate laws are yet to be improved, but acceptance of the workmen's compensation principle is now almost universal. The recognition of its value may be illustrated by our experience last year with longshoremen. The United States Supreme Court, in a divided opinion, held that men loading and unloading vessels could not when injured seek compensation under the state laws. But such re-

lief had come to be generally regarded as social justice. Long-shore work is particularly hazardous. Thousands of such men are seriously injured each year. These "marine" workmen, through the necessary shipment of supplies to our Allies and to our own men in France, had become in a very clear sense indispensable in this war. Thousands of them were already protesting against grievances of long duration. Here was a new grievance, the loss of compensation when injured. A bill to grant such relief was drafted by the Association for Labor Legislation, and within eleven days it was passed through both houses of Congress and signed by the President. This legal protection was necessary in order to render justice in time of peace. The progress of the war lifted it into commanding importance.

A third measure of labor construction which the war has made vitally imperative is the early development of workmen's health insurance. Hundreds of thousands of war workers are about to enter strange employments. Whether in the manufacture of munitions or elsewhere, they will be subjected to dangers with which they are not familiar. A large number of these new workers will be women, peculiarly susceptible to occupational poisons, and with maternity functions to be carefully considered with a view to safeguarding their present health as well as that of the coming generations.

The official commission which has been studying this question in New Jersey states: "The stress of industry in war is making increasing demands upon physical endurance. In our hour of necessity we have been shocked by the high percentage of draft rejections on account of physical disability. As never before we need now to conserve, for present and future generations, the health and physical vigor of our people. Furthermore, it is the duty of statesmanship to look beyond our immediate pressing needs to the period of reconstruction at the close of the war. We cannot afford to disregard the protective legislative inducements already offered to workmen by our keenest commercial competitors in Europe."*

*In line with the definite stand by organized labor in California and New Jersey the New York State Federation of Labor, on February 6, unanimously endorsed a bill for compulsory contributory health insurance and directed its committee to work for its early enactment.

The economic advantage to a nation of a healthy, efficient and contented working class, is recognized by employers who have observed the effects of universal insurance against sickness in Germany. A former representative of large manufacturing interests who is now serving in the War Department wrote to me recently as follows:

"I believe very strongly that unless we make very substantial progress along the line of health insurance . . . we shall find ourselves under very serious handicaps in world competition at the conclusion of the present war. I believe that many of our people are still going cheerfully on with the social ideals and ideas of the past generation quite oblivious to the fact that our great commercial competitors, Germany and Great Britain, have advanced far beyond us in social thinking. The time will come within the years immediately following the war when our 'go as you please' methods of industry will be weighed in the balance in competition with Europe."

Shortly after we entered this war the United States Government provided a most liberal system of accident, health and life insurance for its enlisted men. In support of this wise action it was frequently said by officials in Washington that men were better fighters if relieved of anxiety regarding their future. "The individual states," declares the New Jersey commission, "should be no less considerate of their army of industrial workers."

We are fighting a great world war in order that the condition of the people may be improved. Some time this war will end. But within each nation there is a never-ending struggle for better living conditions, for opportunities for health and happiness that during generations have been denied to the workers. Today, for example, we possess a mighty power to fight disease. To the wealthy class this scientific knowledge is available; to the poverty-stricken it is doled out in charity dispensaries. But for the masses of the working population—in the United States alone among great industrial nations—such treatment is not made available. Through a properly organized system of universal health insurance it would be possible to bring the world of medical science to the aid of the humblest wage-earner.

For these three important measures—public employment service, extension of accident compensation, and the adoption

of workmen's health insurance—there has already been ample preparation and agreement in time of peace. While earnestly sifting new proposals for the after-war reconstruction period, no time should be lost in putting these three well-tested measures into operation.

It is now a matter of peculiarly vital importance to the nation that this country catch up with the constructive labor legislation long since adopted in other countries. Perhaps conservative citizens may comfort themselves with the reflection that short-sighted repression is followed by changes far more radical than would have been brought about had opponents of progress been more wise and just. Certainly the exigencies of international competition for labor and the imperative necessity of conserving our human resources, should indicate the wisdom of taking these practical steps without delay.

During war we must give additional attention to home conditions. It is by anticipating internal problems that nations in a mighty world conflict can insure themselves against disaster. In the midst of a great international upheaval let us not be guilty of saying that the purposes are commendable but that "the time is not ripe for a change." In labor legislation the war has not furnished a ground for postponement of action; rather it has increased the need for action. And in fulfilling this immediate and urgent duty to aid in the successful prosecution of the war we shall at the same time be laying a firm basis for reconstruction after the war.

The future of our government depends upon the loyalty and coöperation of labor. In time of peace we have as a nation been sadly neglectful; we have been especially remiss in our lack of social concern for unorganized labor's welfare; now, if we understand and if we are sincere, we must in time of war prepare both for war and for peace.

PROBLEMS OF IMMIGRATION AND THE FOREIGN BORN AFTER THE WAR

BY HENRY PRATT FAIRCHILD, YALE UNIVERSITY

In discussing the topic set down for my paper this afternoon I shall leave practically untouched that phase of it which might at first seem the most interesting and important. I refer to the question of the volume or extent of immigration in the years immediately following the re-establishment of peace. The principle upon which I do this is that of "safety first." In regard to this problem there are only two safe courses of procedure. One is to make no predictions at all. The other—adopted by at least one prominent writer—is to completely box the compass in one's prophecies, so that whatever happens one may be able to say, "I told you so." The former seems to be preferable. I do not see how any person accustomed to scientific processes of thought can make up his mind at this juncture what the probabilities are in the matter. It is true that the general principles of immigration are well understood. But the specific factors which will determine events in this unique and unprecedented epoch of the world's history are too indeterminate at the present time to serve as a basis of judgment. What do we know positively about the duration of the war, about the total reduction of European populations through deaths and the interference with the birth rate, about the forms of government which will emerge from this turmoil, about taxes, and world trade, and woman labor, and socialism? Every one of these things, and a thousand others, must have its influence on the trend of population movements in the period immediately following the war.

There are other aspects of the subject, however, relating to the effects of past immigration and the attitude of this country toward the immigration of the future which are susceptible of rational analysis and discussion in advance. In dealing with these questions I shall seek to point out the nature

of the problems which we, as a nation, will inevitably have to face rather than to suggest solutions for those problems.

Foremost among these problems—taken by itself, almost staggering in its immensity—is the question of what to do with the foreign-born already in our midst. According to the last Census there were altogether over thirteen and one half million of this class in the United States, amounting to over fourteen per cent of the entire population. Most of these, together with large numbers who have entered since 1910, will still be here when the war is over. It is practically certain that our attitude toward some of them at least will be radically different after the war from what it was before. The traditional attitude of the American people toward its foreign residents as a whole has been one of easy-going, tolerant indifference. We have from time to time objected to the habits, appearance, and mode of life of one group after another. We have mildly complained of their influence upon labor conditions and standards of living in this country. We have recognized in a measure the complications which they introduced into our efforts, to solve our social problems. But, aside from weeding out the manifestly undesirable, by a series of tests growing steadily more exhaustive and severe, we have done very little about them, nor have we regarded them as in any serious way a menace. We have grown used to their strange and uncouth appearance on our streets, and have become habituated to the existence of foreign colonies in all our great cities, and in some of the agricultural districts. We have lazily assumed that all in good season they were being assimilated and absorbed into our body politic, if not in the first generation, then in the second or third. Particularly, we have failed to recognize any necessity or obligation of doing anything definite about them after they were once admitted.

This serene complacency of ours has received a shock in the past few years from which it will recover tardily or never—let us hope never. The demonstrations of the divided allegiance of countless thousands of foreign residents of this country—some of whom have been here for many years—have been too numerous and too convincing to allow of any further doubt. Never again are we, as a people, likely to fall into the delusion that because a foreigner wears American

clothes, eats American food, speaks the English language, sends his children to the public schools, and is fluent in American slang that he is one at heart with us. We have been familiar in the past with individuals who professed an attachment, seemingly about equally divided, for the old country and for the country of their adoption. Now we have learned that what in times of peace passes for a sort of bifurcated patriotism becomes, in times of stress and emergency, a passionate allegiance to a foreign land. We have learned that a man can have only one fatherland. While it is quite possible for an immigrant to transfer enough of his devotion to the country in which he lives to make him a useful, or at least a harmless, member of its society, yet when the interests of nations clash, and it becomes necessary to choose one side or the other, the ties of birth, kinship, nationality, and early association exert themselves in their full strength, and in a large proportion of cases overmaster or at least neutralize any acquired allegiance to another country. It is only in the rarest possible cases that an adult immigrant becomes completely assimilated into the society of which he has made himself a part.

It is wholly unlikely, therefore, that when the war is over we shall return to the old attitude of trusting indifference toward the foreigners in our midst. The entire class of foreign-born is almost certain to be the object of aversion and distrust. The problem will be particularly acute, of course, in the case of those whom we now designate as enemy aliens. We are rapidly developing a profound antipathy toward everything associated with the lands with which we are at war. We hear sober-minded and intelligent people say that they can never bear to travel in Germany again. We refuse to have dealings with those who by birth or even by ancestry are affiliated with the abhorred nations. The very name of German, and every German name, arouses suspicion and revulsion. Very likely this sentiment will not be as persistent as we now feel. But it will last long enough after the war to make the problem of the relations of foreigners and natives in this great composite population an exceedingly critical one. Last Saturday's paper informed us that 130,000 Germans in New York City alone were to be registered, and their finger

prints recorded. Others are being interned, watched, and subjected to a variety of limitations and restrictions. Is it conceivable that the mere cessation of hostilities will automatically obliterate the impressions formed during the period of conflict? Shall we be able at once to reinstate two and a half million Germans and their descendants in our confidence? In the face of all that we have learned about German propaganda, shall we be able to shake off every lingering doubt and suspicion as to the deep-seated and nefarious designs which they may be harboring against the future welfare of our nation? Are not the seeds being sown for a class hatred based on race, with which Austria-Hungary and Turkey have long been familiar, but which has hitherto been unknown in this country?

The inclusion of Austria-Hungary in the list of our enemies has notably complicated the problem, not only because of the increase in the numbers involved, but because of the great diversity of racial elements concerned. If eventually Turkey is also named, the situation will be still more aggravated. For in these latter countries large sections of the population are virtually in the position of subject races, and have a positive hatred rather than an affection for the governments under which they live. It is a manifest injustice to extend to the Slovak and the Armenian the aversion that we feel for the German-Austrian and the Turk. Yet doubtless it will be done. The man on the street is not versed in nice distinctions of this sort, and judges people by their appearance, or by their nativity if he happens to know it.

It is my personal belief that the proportions of this problem will not be such as to make it absolutely insoluble. The obstacles will be great, but not insuperable. Just what the solution will be I cannot foresee. Doubtless there will be some who will advocate deporting all enemy aliens to their own land when the war is over. I believe that some *modus vivendi* will be worked out which will make possible the restoration of relations of amity and coöperation. But certainly for the student of social affairs there is a great warning here. We hope, indeed, that this war will be the last, and that a national crisis of this particular type will never recur again. But we must recognize clearly that the condition of

heterogeneity and disunion which this crisis has revealed is a menace in times of peace as well as in times of war. Miss Frances Kellor, who certainly will not be accused of undue prejudice against immigration, has written, "Thanks to the war, we have been freed from the delusion that we are a united nation marching steadily along an American highway of peace, prosperity, common ideals, beliefs, language, and purpose." Other avowed anti-restrictionists have taken the same ground. We are at last awake to the dangerous results of an unlimited immigration. We must stay awake. When the time comes to devote our attention to other things than the winning of the war, we must study more assiduously and seriously than ever before the whole great question of the mixing of peoples, the results that flow from such mixing, and the scientific principles of control.

Foremost among the specific questions involved in this study is that of assimilation. A surprisingly inadequate amount of study has been given to this subject hitherto by sociologists. There is not even any uniformity as to the meaning or definition of the term. Yet it lies at the very heart of all problems of immigration and population movements, particularly in modern times. The more democracy prevails among the governments of the world, the more significant becomes the question of assimilation. For autocracies and despotisms not only may exist, but actually thrive and prosper, on the basis of a disunited and incongruous populace. The old Roman maxim, "Divide in order to conquer," is sound not only for building up an empire but for maintaining one. But democracies flourish only on uniform soil. The very lifeblood of a democracy is homogeneity, understanding, and sympathy—that is, feeling together—on the part of the great bulk of the common people. This is not to say that absolute identity of thought and opinion on the part of the members of a democracy is essential to national stability. That would obviously mean mere stagnation. The danger lies in differentiations which inhere in race, former nationality, or inelastic occupational status—matters which lie beyond the control of the individual will.

The process of assimilation, in general terms, represents the overcoming, abandonment, or elimination of those dif-

ferentiating features or characteristics which an immigrant brings with him from the land of his nativity to the land of his adoption. It makes no difference whether these characteristics are a part of his racial inheritance, or whether they come to him through his social heredity. As long as he possesses them for the reason that he was born and brought up in Germany, or Italy, or Syria, they are German, or Italian, or Syrian characteristics, and before he can be said to be assimilated—into the United States, for instance—they must have been completely supplanted by the corresponding American characteristics. This does not mean the complete subjection of his intellect to any prevailing American opinions or beliefs. Americans think differently on all sorts of subjects, just as Germans and Italians and Syrians do. But the nature of his opinions must cease to be colored by the facts of his origin. Whatever the conclusions at which he arrives, he must think as an American, and not as a German, or an Italian, or a Syrian.

We need to know—we must know, if we are to meet adequately the increasingly intricate national problems of the future—just what degree of assimilation is essential to national solidarity, just how assimilation is accomplished, and the extent to which it can be accelerated by voluntary efforts. There is a powerful movement on foot to enlist the energy of the American people for the more effective and speedy Americanization of our confessedly heterogeneous population. We need to be able to evaluate this movement. We need to know what agencies are effective for this purpose, whether assimilation is proceeding less satisfactorily in the twentieth century than in the nineteenth, and what we as individuals can do to help meet the situation.

Closely associated with the problem of assimilation is that of naturalization. The question of naturalization, involving as it does the make-up of the electorate within which sovereignty itself resides, is of the most fundamental importance to a democracy. Yet in the United States it has received an amazingly slight measure of attention. Our naturalization laws have not been amended in any essential particulars in a hundred years, and the only vigorous effort to secure such alteration was the nativistic movement of the middle of the

nineteenth century. Yet there are vital principles at stake. Is residence in itself an adequate chief criterion for naturalization? If so, is a five year period sufficient under modern conditions? Should assimilation be made a condition for naturalization? If so, what degree of assimilation should be required, and by what tests can that degree be determined? Are all races equally adapted for American citizenship, and should naturalization accordingly be offered to all aliens alike, irrespective of race? Granting a large alien element, or, rather, large groups of diverse alien elements, in our midst, will the situation be bettered by making naturalization easier or harder for them?

At the present time, the chief active propaganda in this country is directed toward facilitating naturalization, removing the racial limitations, and not only encouraging but actually urging aliens to seek citizenship. The matter is too important to be left to the decision of a few special pleaders and the always large proportion of the general populace who can be induced to follow any energetic leader, and lend their weight to any vigorous campaign. The recent enfranchisement of women in New York has called attention to the large number of new voters who have acquired citizenship through marriage with a citizen, quite irrespective of any qualifications of their own. But this is only a small part of the problem. The question of who shall be the voters in the next decade or two is the question of who shall decide the destiny of this nation for centuries to come.

This introduces the problem of nationality and nations, which is another of the things upon which we are forced by circumstances to concentrate our attention. Lloyd George is quoted as saying that this war is essentially a war of nationalities. Certainly no idea is more prominent today, particularly in connection with the problems of settlement, than the idea of nationality. We need therefore to be able to think clearly and correctly upon the question as to what constitutes a nation and a nationality. We often use the term nation as synonymous with state. But that is clearly a glaring inaccuracy. We use the terms nationality and race interchangeably. But nationality and race are not coterminous. The ties which bind nationalities together may conceivably have originated, partly

at least, in racial heredity, but they are no longer determined by race. They are essentially spiritual or cultural. The Teutonic tribe which gave the name to France was racially indistinguishable from that other Teutonic tribe from which is derived the French word for Germany. Today, the people of north France are much more closely affiliated racially with the people of southern Germany than they are with the people of southern France. We must know just what is the nature of these bonds and criteria of nationality. Can a nationality be built up voluntarily or is it necessarily a historical product? What makes a nationality a nation? Can a nation once destroyed ever be reconstructed? Is the United States a nation?

Finally I wish to call attention to the need of more scientific and conclusive study of mixing of races from the biological point of view. Most of what has been said thus far has dealt with the mingling of cultures. But what about the effects of the physical blending of racial stocks? It is not enough to point out, as is so frequently done, that there are no pure races today. Granting the truth of this assertion, it simply transfers the question to that of the desirability or effects of the further blending of the existing diverse though mixed races. The variety of opinion on this subject displayed by prominent anthropologists is well known. One common view is that the mixing of closely allied races is not only harmless, but may be positively beneficial, the result being a type superior to either of the originals, but that if the races are too diverse the product is inferior to either. This is important if true. If there is such a line of demarcation, it is most essential to know where it falls, as it would have an immediate and direct bearing upon the regulation of immigration.

Such are some of the problems of population which will certainly confront us after the war. They are not, to be sure, post-bellum problems in the exclusive sense. They are problems which have been latent in our social development for decades and generations past. Some of them would probably have increased to critical intensity in the near future without any war. But the war has multiplied their importance many fold, and fortunately at the same time awakened us to their existence. All social institutions will be in flux

during the period of reconstruction. The responsibilities of the franchise in democracies will be immeasurably heavier than ever before. The problems to be solved will be more intricate and significant. The question of the physical, psychological, and cultural constitution of the American people will have a profound bearing on the future of human civilization.

If I seem to have evaded my responsibility by simply pointing out problems instead of suggesting solutions, I beg forbearance. I have wished to direct attention to two vital necessities. One is the more thorough, scientific, and exhaustive study of the question of population movements and their results by a much larger proportion of the American people. Upon this I have perhaps already laid sufficient emphasis. The other is the need of a positive and drastic restriction of immigration. At the present time this is being effected by the cessation of trans-Atlantic travel. Possibly for some years after the war the volume of immigration may be at a minimum on account of exceptional conditions, or the interference of foreign governments. But in any case it should be the avowed policy of this nation to reduce the total number of foreigners admitted to the country to a fraction of what it has been in recent years.

One of the basic principles of applied social science is prevention. The source of all our problems of foreign population is immigration and the direct and immediate point to which to apply prevention is the immigration stream itself. I cannot understand the psychology of those who not only frankly admit, but vociferously proclaim, the evils resulting from large immigration, and yet refuse to grant that the obvious and primary step toward correcting those evils is to check immigration. It is confessed on all hands that we are a disorganized and disunited people, unfit to grapple effectively with great national problems. Let us, then, shut off the supply of extraneous elements and devote ourselves with the least possible handicap to the problem of making what adjustments are possible with those who are already here. If in time we become convinced that we have devised and put in operation a system of assimilative machinery capable of handling a limited amount of raw material, it will be easy to lower the bars. If the anthropologists and biologists event-

ually come to an agreement as to the desirability of race mixture, there will then be time enough to facilitate the process. In the meantime, it will be wise to proceed slowly and cautiously. Sociological blunders are exceedingly difficult of correction. It is a great deal easier to mix races than it is to unmix them. The career of the human race, and of that portion of it known as the American people, still stretches some distance into the future, and there will be ample opportunity to put into effect innovations the utility of which has been proved. For the present, social wisdom counsels us to hold aloof from policies involving results of dubious desirability, which, once accomplished, can never be undone.

NOTES ON THE I. W. W. IN ARIZONA AND THE NORTHWEST

BY ROBERT W. BRUÈRE

At the request of the New York *Evening Post*, I set out to report on certain industrial conditions prevailing in the West. In the copper country of Arizona and in the great timber districts of the Northwest I found that the so-called I. W. W. problem was not a matter-of-fact question of preambles or of "stickerettes" or of sabotage in the ordinary sense of that term, but an elusive question of curious psychological relationships that have sprung up from conflicting vested interests. In reporting facts of human conduct in such a way as to influence public opinion in the formulation of sound public policies one finds oneself hampered by all manner of prejudices and preconceptions, not only in one's own mind, but also in the minds of one's audience. In coming before you to-day as a reporter of I. W. W. activities in the West, I am assuming that you are a group of typical American citizens, with the typical interest and prejudices of average American citizens, and I shall therefore quote, not members of the I. W. W., whom most American citizens today seem to regard as a curious combination of witches and outlaws, but I shall quote solid American business men, officers of the National Forest Service, and men in other governmental departments.

On the basis of the facts as they were given to me by such conservative men, I shall give you a few of the significant symptoms of that unhealthy and dangerous state of mind which must be exposed; which must be brought out into the healing light of the sun; which must be soberly and honestly considered. I wish that it were possible in the discussion of such symptoms to escape moralistic and personal animosities, because however carefully one states the facts, one is almost certain to be charged with "mud slinging"—and personal recriminations get us nowhere.

Take the situation, then, in Arizona. Industrial and social relationships there are such as those of us who have been busy

at social work and industrial reorganization in dense industrial communities have never dreamed of. Arizona is a one-industry State. In the mining camps you find vastly precious and vulnerable properties, with their managers and absentee owners on one side, and on the other the muckers, the men who go down into the "drifts" and the "stopes" and blast out the ore,—nothing in between, no buffer middle-class, no complicating economic interests of any other kind. There you find the bald class struggle clean-cut before you. Nothing but the wage-earners and the managers, with the so-called "labor agitator" coming in from the outside to the support of one group, and the absentee owner, with his great economic and political power, standing back of the other.

You have, then, in the copper camps, these two groups pitted against one another—the managers interested almost exclusively in production, the workers interested in nothing but bending the fruits of that production in the direction of their own special interests. When I say that the managers are interested exclusively in production, I do not mean to cast a slur upon the men who manage the mines in those Arizona camps, for a finer type of men physically and personally I never met. Neither do I mean to cast a slur upon the absentee owners as human beings. I am simply trying to indicate the situation as I found it—and from the point of view of the public interest it is a thoroughly unhealthy situation.

For instance, in Arizona I learned to know the manager of one of the richest mines. There was a strike on and we were discussing his relations to his employees. One day he took me up the hillside where his mine is located and pointing down at a group of shacks, dreary, dirty, brutal little cabins—he said:

"What are you going to do with men, earning five dollars a day, who are willing to live in such houses?"

"But", I asked, "do you know the men who live there? Do you know where they come from, where they are going?"

He knew nothing about them. He came in no direct personal contact with them whatsoever. I asked him why he didn't take time to learn who those particular men were, since they worked in his mines; why, knowing nothing about them, he had apparently joined in the hue and cry against

them as I. W. W. "traitors." His answer was, in effect, that he had lent himself to a campaign of slander against his own employees because they had interfered with the production of copper by their strike, and he had lent himself to the "patriotic" outcry against them because that was the easiest way to get in the troops, and the presence of the troops would simplify the breaking of the strike—which by the way was caused by the refusal of the managers in that district to deal with their men collectively, to give them a reasonable share in the democratic control of the conditions under which they worked and lived.

We talked for an hour or two and he became seriously interested in my suggestion that he ought to devise some means by which he could find out who his employees were, find out something about their interests and desires as men.

"But how am I to learn to know them," he said. "I haven't got time for it, I've got to run the mill and the mine. My business is to get out copper. The people back East judge me by the balance sheet. They are fine people, personally speaking, but they put their money into this property to make money. We had an accident in the mine here a little while ago to one of our old employees—a man I happened to know well. It was a horrible accident; one of those tragedies there is no way to prevent. One man was killed outright. Another was terribly injured and his eyesight was permanently impaired. In considering the matter, I decided that this old employee, who had been desperately injured in the course of duty, ought to be generously compensated. I named a figure to the office back East. In reply I got a telegram asking me if I didn't think I might find a way to cut my figure by a few thousand."

Conditions are estranging the managers who are on the ground from their men; the absentee owners are still further removed from the human contacts that used to prevail in the old small-scale enterprises. What is the result? You have a growing multitude of so-called "hobo miners" and "ten day men"—"womanless, voteless, jobless men," as the late Professor Charlton Parker has described them; migratories moving not only through the vast stretches of Arizona, but down through Mexico, up along the coast, through British Columbia and down through Minnesota and Michigan. Investigations

show that from eighty to ninety per cent. of these wandering workers have no families, no social roots, live a thoroughly abnormal life. The men who run the mines don't know, as I say, where they come from or where they go. So long as the stream keeps flowing and copper is mined, nobody cares. As a result of this condition, and of the "two-class" organization of these mining communities, an estrangement grows up between management and men, and there develops a strange psychology of suspicion and fear, such as I have never before experienced—something that for want of a more precise term I can only describe as a "stool-pigeon psychology."

In times of industrial unrest, what do the managers do? They become suspicious of their men, as we are always likely to be suspicious of strangers.

"These fellows are a bad lot", they say. "They may grow ugly and wreck our precious mines. Any stick of dynamite misplaced, any little venture in violent sabotage, may destroy millions of property. Therefore I must hire spies and secret service men to go among them, win their confidence and betray them."

So the manager puts secret service men over the superintendents and foremen; and the foremen puts spies over the men in the mines; and the absentee owners put secret agents to watch the managers. For the sake of copper, men become estranged, suspect one another, and in times of labor unrest turn upon one another in hatred. This is a very unwholesome state of affairs in a democracy.

Suspicion and espionage on one side breed suspicion and espionage on the other. One large employer out West told me that he knew everything that went on down at the union hall, because a man in his pay was acting as the secretary of the union. When I mentioned this fact to an officer of the union he was not at all disturbed. It was one of the things he counted on.

"Of course, we know that they have us spotted," he said. "But they haven't anything on us. We have men inside of their offices and we know what goes on there almost as quick as it happens."

Thus both sides become the victims of what I have called a "stool-pigeon psychology," a morbid, socially harmful state

of mind. Everybody is under a perpetual weight of emotional repression. That is at the root of the so-called I. W. W. problem out West. It isn't a question of the I. W. W. preamble, it isn't a question of the I. W. W. teachings, it isn't a question of sabotage. By the way, the I. W. W. no longer speak of sabotage; I rarely heard that expression in the mines or the woods. They are too clever psychologists, when they are on the job, to hold to a term that has lost its vitality. They talk about the "conscientious withdrawal of efficiency," and it works.

Don't be misled by the highly colored headlines and the highly dramatized news that the press feeds you with. The problem is not one of the malice or wickedness of individual men, either among the employers or the workers. The country is facing a serious psychological situation that is not by any means confined to the nominal I. W. W.; it is facing a spirit of unrest that is spreading rapidly throughout the country and will continue to spread if we continue to leave our great basic industries at the mercy of stool-pigeons. Men on both sides are living under the stress of an abnormal repression that is likely at any moment to break out in violence. The Bisbee deportations were the natural result of the unhealthy conditions under which the great mines in Bisbee are operated. The mine owners and their agents down in Bisbee reacted in a perfectly normal way to the abnormal conditions which have grown up in the copper country: conditions not unlike those which one imagines must have prevailed in Russia under the old régime.

The spirit of autocracy is not entirely foreign to America, neither is it confined to the copper country. Not far from the edge of the National Forest in Montana there is a comparatively small mining camp. A strike broke out there last summer. Among the strikers were a number of Finns. When the Selective Draft Law went into effect certain of these Finnish strikers failed to register. This gave the employers a welcome opportunity to invoke "patriotism" as a strike-breaking weapon. Organized as a Liberty Committee they descended upon the Finnish community, herded some seventy-five of the strikers together, placed them on a special train

and deported them to the nearest town with a jail large enough to hold them.

The alleged offense was a violation of a federal statute. The resident officer of the United States Government, under whose jurisdiction the alleged violation came, went to the jail to see what manner of criminals the Liberty Committee had captured for him. He found, as he himself told me, that most of the prisoners neither spoke nor understood English, and that the patriots of the Liberty Committee had not taken the trouble to interpret the Selective Draft Law to them. They had a dazed idea that they were to be torn from their families and friends and sent to the trenches to fight for Russia. When the government official interpreted the law they unanimously expressed their willingness to serve the United States in any capacity he might indicate, although they did hope that they might not be shipped back across the sea. The official's investigation revealed no intentional or premeditated violation of the Federal statute, and he accordingly decided that the deportees should be restored to their homes. When he announced this decision one of the leaders of the Liberty Committee protested that if the strikers were returned to the camp he would tear up his Liberty bonds and forswear further service to the Government of the United States. Nevertheless the deported strikers were taken back to their homes.

After a brief interval the Liberty Committee descended upon the Finnish community again, seized certain alleged agitators, charged them with being members of the I. W. W. and threw them into jail. The Committee then instituted an inquisition, which was reported in the *New York Times* under date of November 23rd, in the following dispatch:

"The Secretary of the Finnish Propaganda League at . . . a coal mining camp southwest of . . . was horse-whipped by a 'Liberty Committee' of citizens for alleged offensive anti-war activities, according to information received here to-day. It is also reported that two Finnish Industrial Workers were strung up by the neck until they lost consciousness."

The details of the episode vary. As it was related to me by an agent of the Federal Government who was in a most favorable position to know all the facts, it contained certain

incidents not divulged by the *Times* dispatch. According to this version at least one of these Finnish workers had a noose placed about his neck and was then ordered to give the names of the leading members of the I. W. W. in the camp. When he professed his inability to answer the question, he was strung up until he lost consciousness, not only once, but repeatedly. This post-graduate course in democratic "patriotism" was not conducive to clear thinking. When, after repeated near-lynchings, he still protested his inability to give the required information, he was beaten up with a rope to the end of which a piece of sharp metal had been attached. After a few days he was released and told to clear out of the camp.

He had a wife and two children. Except for his fellow nationals in the Finnish community, he was a stranger in the country. He owned a house for which there was no ready market. His experience at the hands of the Liberty Committee had not left him with a keen zest for pioneer adventure. He kept to his house and entered into a compact with his wife in which they agreed that if the "patriots" again raided their home he would shoot her, their children, and himself.

And after a few days the Liberty Committee, according to the story as it was told me by a responsible officer of the United States Government, did return. Fortunately for himself, he was in an upper room of his house, apart from his wife and children, when they came. There was a quick interchange of shots, during which a woman, a lodger in the house, was killed. All the circumstantial evidence indicated that the fatal shot had come from outside. But the Finn was again arrested, thrown into jail on a charge of murder, and again released after twenty-nine days for lack of sufficient evidence against him.

In the face of such incidents is there any wonder that the I. W. W. preaches a doctrine of revolution, and that with conditions so like the conditions that must have prevailed in old Russia we are developing a Bolshevik movement of our own?

But fortunately the incident of this Finnish community is not characteristic of our American democracy. In spite of their defects our American institutions are yet sufficiently flexible to provide an escape for the unhealthy repressions out of which revolutions grow.

Not far from the mining camp of which I have been telling—in Missoula, Montana—there is an office of the National Forest Service which has dealt with the I. W. W. problem in a much more American, more democratic, and far more successful manner.

Every summer the great national forests in the Northwest are menaced by fires started by lightning or by campers or by homesteaders, who violate the fire regulations in their effort to make a quick clearing of stumps from their lands. In the Missoula district alone the National Forest Service employed as many as ten thousand men last summer to fight these fires, and it was common knowledge that the great majority of men so employed were members of the I. W. W.

When I was in Missoula, I went to Mr. Rutledge, the Acting District Forester, told him what I had heard about the work of the I. W. W. in the national forest reservations and asked him to give me the facts. To a conference in his office he called Major F. A. Fenn, Assistant District Forester, who had handled all cases of industrial disputes during the summer, Mr. McGowan, assistant solicitor of the United States Department of Agriculture, who had prosecuted all cases of alleged incendiarism, and Mr. J. W. Girard, logging engineer of the United States Forest Service, who had been directly in charge of the fire fighting crew in the woods; and I asked these men to give me the facts of their experience.

Major Fenn told me that in all his dealing with men employed by the Forest Service, whether they were members of the I. W. W. or not, he did not have a single case where the men were not willing to do what was fair under the terms of their contract when that contract was explained to them from the point of view of their employer, the Forest Service. He had adjusted controversies in from fifty to sixty cases which involved questions of wages, food, blankets, and what should be done in cases of injury and in cases where the men were called home because of sickness of their wives or in their families, or because they were called under the draft. Major Fenn said that not a single man went out of his office, whether his decision was for or against him, dissatisfied so far as he could observe.

"In the work here," Major Fenn said, "we made absolutely no distinction between the I. W. W. men and others, so long as they were willing to fight fires. We frequently had to discharge men for inefficiency, but we had not a single case of sympathetic strike of avowed I. W. W. in such cases."

Mr. Rutledge, the Acting District Forester, told me that they had employed about ten thousand men in that district and that fully two thousand went through the Missoula office. They had had the coöperation of Mr. Smith, the leading member of the I. W. W. in Missoula, in getting the men. These men refused generally to take employment for the protection of timber belonging to private corporations. The Forest Service, however, took the position that they were primarily protecting Uncle Sam's timber; if incidentally they protected other timber, that was their own affair, because they had to fight fires wherever they found them. Mr. Rutledge said that the men responded in good faith to this candor when they became satisfied that the Service was not using the name of the United States primarily to protect private holdings.

Many of the purchasers of government timber have, because of the strikes, been unable to fulfill their contracts; and, in order to be as fair with them as they were with the men, the Forest Service has been very lenient in extending the time limit of such contracts.

"We had repeated requests from operators for extension of time and modification of contracts," said Mr. Rutledge, "because they could not get labor and their camps were being picketed. Mr. McGowan and I got hold of the I. W. W. leader and tried to find out what their troubles were. He said they were fighting principally for the eight-hour day and, if we could get the eight-hour day established on Forest Service sales, there would be no trouble in filling the camps with men. He said the men needed money and were anxious to work if they could get this one concession.

"In the beginning of the year 1917 we raised wages for fire fighters from twenty-five cents to thirty cents per hour. This was one of the most effective things we did, because it showed the men we were considering the increased cost of living."

Mr. Rutledge's experience has convinced him that the local I. W. W. men are amenable to reason and fair treatment, and he believes that one of the reasons why they have served the government so well is that they have a sense of proprietorship in the national forests which they were trying to protect.

Now, these are no academic questions. They go to the roots of human nature and to roots of that unconquerable desire of all normal minded men to live in the open, to live freely and as human beings. This problem of the I. W. W. is not a thing which ought to wait long for solution, and if that great public which we represent is going to have a voice in deciding whether these questions are to be answered along democratic or autocratic lines it has got to be enlightened and it has got to know something more than statistical tables about wages and production. It has got to understand the people who make up our American citizens.

N. B.—For a fuller accounting of I. W. W. activities in Arizona and the Northwest, the reader is referred to a series of twenty articles under the title "Following the I. W. W. Trail," first published in the New York *Evening Post*, and now reprinted by the *Evening Post* in pamphlet form; and to an article entitled "The I. W. W., An Interpretation," published in *Harper's Monthly*, for July, 1918.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE UNITED STATES ARMY FOR THE TREATMENT OF WAR NEUROSES*

BY THOMAS W. SALMON, M.D.

MAJOR MEDICAL OFFICERS' RESERVE CORPS, U. S. ARMY

The following recommendations for the treatment of mental diseases and war neuroses ("shell shock") in United States troops are based chiefly upon the experience of the British Army in dealing with these disorders. . . . The advice of British medical officers engaged in this special work has aided greatly in formulating the plans presented. At the same time conditions imposed by the necessity of conducting our military operations three thousand miles away from home territory have been borne in mind.

It seems desirable to consider separately in these recommendations, expeditionary and non-expeditionary forces. It is necessary to deal separately with mental and nervous diseases in the United States but not in France. While facilities existing at home can be utilized for the treatment of mental diseases it is necessary to create new ones for the treatment of the war neuroses. In France, where all facilities for treatment must be created by the medical department, the distinction between psychoses and neuroses need not be drawn so closely. Consequently, simpler and more effective methods of administrative management can be devised.

The importance of providing, in advance of their urgent need, adequate facilities for the treatment and management of nervous and mental disorders can hardly be overstated. The European countries at war had made practically no such preparations and they fell into difficulties from which they are now only commencing to extricate themselves. We can profit by their experience and, if we choose, have at our disposal, before we begin to sustain these types of casualties in very large numbers, a personnel of specially-trained medical

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officers, nurses and civilian assistants and an efficient mechanism for treating mental and nervous disorders in France, evacuating them to home territory and continuing their treatment, when necessary, in the United States.

Although it might be considered more appropriately under the heading of prevention than under that of treatment, the most important recommendation to be made is that of rigidly excluding insane, feeble-minded, psychopathic and neuropathic individuals from the forces which are to be sent to France and exposed to the terrific stress of modern war. Not only the medical officers but the line officers interviewed in England emphasized, over and over again, the importance of not accepting mentally unstable recruits for military service at the front. If the period of training at the concentration camps is used for observation and examination, it is within our power to reduce very materially the difficult problem of caring for mental and nervous cases in France, increase the military efficiency of the expeditionary forces and save the country millions of dollars in pensions. Sir William Osler, who has had a large experience in the selection of recruits for the British Army and has seen the disastrous results of carelessness in this respect, feels so strongly on the subject that he has recently made his views known in a letter to the *Journal of the American Medical Association** in which he mentions neuropathic make-up as one of the three great causes for the invariable rejection of recruits. In personal conversation he gave numerous illustrations of the burden which the acceptance of neurotic recruits had unnecessarily thrown upon an army struggling to surmount the difficult medical problems inseparable from the war.

EXPEDITIONARY FORCES

I. OVERSEAS

The plan herein suggested for dealing with mental and functional nervous diseases in the expeditionary forces overseas pre-supposes that all sick and wounded soldiers who are not likely to be returned for duty in the fighting line within six months will be evacuated to home territory. The same considerations which led to the adoption of this policy by the

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Canadian Army are equally valid in the case of American troops. If large numbers of the sick and wounded who are not likely to return to active duty have to be cared for in France during long periods of disability, the amount of food and other supplies which must be sent overseas for them and for those who care for them will diminish the tonnage available for the transportation of munitions required for successful military operations; the great auxiliary hospital facilities available in the United States cannot be utilized and, in the case of the severe neuroses, fewer recoveries will take place. If submarine activities seriously interfere with the return of disabled soldiers to the United States and it is necessary to provide continued care, chronic cases should be evacuated to special hospitals established in France for this purpose. It is very desirable to maintain an active service in base hospitals that receive cases from the front. This is especially true in the case of the war neuroses.

(a) *Base Section of Lines of Communication.* The base upon which each army rests should be provided with a special base hospital of five hundred beds for neuro-psychiatric cases. Three years' experience in treating these cases in general hospitals in England and France amply demonstrates the need for such an institution. Few more hopeful cases exist in the medical services of the countries at war than those suffering from the war neuroses grouped under the term "shell shock" *when treated in special hospitals by physicians and nurses familiar with the nature of functional nervous diseases and with their management.* On the other hand, the general military hospitals and convalescent camps presented no more pathetic picture than the mismanaged nervous and mental cases which crowded their wards before such special hospitals were established. Exposed to misdirected harshness or to equally misdirected sympathy, dealt with at one time as malingerers and at another as sufferers from incurable organic nervous disease, "passed on" from one hospital to another and finally discharged with pensions which cannot subsequently be diminished, their treatment has not been a wholly creditable chapter in military medicine. As one writer has said, "they enter the hospitals as 'shell shock' cases and come out as nervous wrecks." To their initial neurological disability (of a dis-

tinctly recoverable nature) are added such secondary effects as unfavorable habit-reactions, stereotypy and fixation of symptoms, the self-pity of the confirmed hysteric, the morbid timidity and anxiety of the neurasthenic and the despair of the hypochondriac. In such hospitals and convalescent homes inactivity and aimless lounging weaken will, and the attitude of permanent invalidism quickly replaces that of recovery. The provision of special facilities for the treatment of "shell shock" cases is imperative from the point of view of military efficiency as well as from that of common humanity, for more than half these cases can be returned to duty if they receive active treatment in special hospitals from an early period in their disease.

British experience indicates that about one hundred of the beds in each such special base hospital would be occupied by mental cases and the rest by those suffering from war neuroses. It is not necessary to make this division arbitrarily in advance, however, as both classes of cases can be cared for in the type of hospital to be proposed and re-distribution of patients can be made from time to time as circumstances require. It should be the object of these special base hospitals to provide treatment for all cases likely to recover and be returned to active duty within six months. Practically all mental cases, even those who recover during this period, as well as functional nervous cases presenting an unfavorable outlook or which are unimproved by special treatment, should be evacuated to the United States as rapidly as transportation conditions will permit.

Each such hospital should be located with reference to its accessibility to other hospitals along the lines of communication of the army which it serves. This will necessitate its being on the main railway line down which disabled soldiers are evacuated from the front. It should also be within convenient reach of, although not necessarily at, the port of embarkation. If it is possible to secure a site in southern France where outdoor work can be continued during the winter, many important advantages will be gained. Gardening and other outdoor occupations are so valuable that the amount of ground adjoining each base hospital, or contiguous to it, should be not less than one acre for every six patients of one third its popu-

lation. Thus, at least thirty acres are required for a hospital with 500 beds.

The type of general hospital adopted by the American Army for cantonment camps could be used, with certain interior changes, but it would be more advantageous to secure a hotel or school and remodel it to perform the special functions of a hospital of this character. The living arrangements in these special hospitals are simpler than in general hospitals for medical and surgical cases. About five per cent. of the bed-capacity will have to be in single rooms. This percentage will be somewhat greater in the psychiatric division and smaller in the neurological division. Less than three per cent. of the population will be bed-patients. A sufficient number of rooms in both the neurological and psychiatric divisions should be set aside for officers—the higher proportion of officers among patients with neuroses being taken into consideration in planning this department.

It is necessary to allow liberally for examining rooms, massage, hydrotherapy and electrotherapy and to provide one large room which can be used for an amusement hall. When the patients and staff have been suitably housed attention should be directed to the highly important features of shops, industrial equipment, gymnasium and gardens. If no suitable buildings close to the hospital can be secured, perfectly adequate facilities can be provided in cheaply constructed wooden huts with concrete floors. A gymnasium can be erected more cheaply than an existing building can be adapted for this purpose unless a large storehouse, barn or factory is available.

Hydrotherapeutic equipment should include continuous baths, Scotch douche, needle baths and a swimming pool. The latter is exceptionally valuable in the treatment of functional paralyses and disturbances of gait which disappear while patients are swimming, thus often opening the way for rapid recovery by persuasion.

Electrical apparatus is necessary for diagnostic purposes and also for general and local treatment.

Second in importance only to the general psychological control of the situation in functional nervous diseases is the restoration of the lost or impaired functions by re-education. None of the methods available for re-education are so valuable

in the war neuroses as those in which a useful occupation is employed as the means for training. Re-education should commence as soon as the patient is received. Thought, will, feeling and function have all to be restored and work toward all these ends should be undertaken simultaneously. Non-productive occupations are not only useless but deleterious. The principle of "learning by doing" should guide all re-educative work. Continual "resting," long periods spent alone, general softening of the environment and occupations undertaken simply because the mood of the patient suggests them are positively harmful, as shown by the poor results obtained in those general hospitals and convalescent homes in which such measures are employed.

The industrial equipment needed is relatively simple and inexpensive. It is very desirable to begin with a few absolutely necessary things and to add those made by the patients themselves. When this is done every piece of apparatus is invested, in the eyes of the patients, with the spirit of achievement through persistent effort—the very keynote of treatment. The fact that it has been made by patients recovering from neuroses will help hundreds of subsequent patients through the force of hopeful suggestion.

Of course each shop must be adequately equipped with the tools needed for the purpose.

Practically all gymnasium apparatus can be made in the shops after the hospital is opened.

Each special base hospital should be able to evacuate patients who, although not quite able to return to active duty, no longer require intensive treatment. For this purpose one or more convalescent camps within convenient distance by motor truck from the main institution should be established. Each of these convalescent camps should not exceed 100 in capacity. It will require only one medical officer, one sergeant, three female nurses, an instructor and three or four hospital corps men, as the patients will be able to care for themselves and in a short time return to duty.

One camp may have to be established for the care of another type of cases. It is conceivable that submarine activity will interfere so seriously with the evacuation of chronic and non-recoverable cases to the United States that the special

hospital will be overcrowded. Overcrowding will instantly interfere with the success of the work and this will simply mean that men who otherwise might recover and return to military duty at the front will fail to do so. Such a calamity can be averted by transferring chronic and non-recoverable cases to a camp organized upon quite simple lines under direct control of the main hospital and near enough to utilize its therapeutic resources. The beds which such patients would otherwise occupy in the special base hospital can be made available for the use of fresh, recoverable cases. Such developments might better be made naturally as circumstances require than provided for by any formal arrangements made in advance.* . . .

The commissioned medical officers should all be men with excellent training in neurology and psychiatry. The neurologists should have a psychiatric outlook and the psychiatrists should be familiar with neurological technique. Of importance almost equal to the professional qualifications of these officers is their character and tact, and no man who is unable to adjust his personal problems should be selected for this work. There is no place in such hospital for a "queer," disgruntled or irritable individual except as a patient. Men who are strong, forceful, patient, tactful and sympathetic are required. It is better to permit a medical officer not having these qualifications to remain at home than to assign him to one of these hospitals and allow him to interfere with treatment by his failure to establish and maintain proper contact with his patients. The resources to be employed include psychological analysis, persuasion, sympathy, discipline, hypnotism, ridicule, encouragement and severity. All are dangerous or useless in the hands of the inexperienced, as the records of "shell shock" cases treated in general hospitals testify. In the hands of men capable of forming a correct estimate of the make-up of each patient and of employing these resources with reference to the therapeutic problem presented by each case, they are powerful aids.

*According to Dr. Salmon, on pp. 536-7 of his article, each base hospital should have a total personnel of 235 members grouped as follows: 20 commissioned and 24 non-commissioned officers, 46 female nurses, 129 enlisted men to be distributed as ward-attendants, orderlies in the shops and rooms for special treatment, laboratory, storerooms, kitchen and mess. The 16 civilian employees should for the most part be instructors.

The female nurses should have had experience in the treatment of mental and nervous diseases. Character and personality are as important in nurses as in medical officers. A large proportion of college women will be found advantageous.

The enlisted men who perform the duties of ward attendants and assistants in the shops, gardens and gymnasium should include a considerable number of those who have had experience in dealing with mental and nervous diseases. The civilian employees who act as instructors should all have had practical experience in the use of occupations in the treatment of nervous and mental diseases. The instructor for bed occupations should be a woman and she should train the female nurses to assist her in this kind of work.

No work is more exacting than that which will fall to the physicians and chief lay employees in such hospital. Success in treatment depends chiefly upon each person's establishing and maintaining a sincere belief in the work to which he or she is assigned. No hysterical case must be regarded as hopeless. The maintenance of a correct attitude and constant coöperation between physicians, nurses, instructors and men in the face of the tremendous demands which neurotic patients make upon the patience and resourcefulness of those treating them soon bring weariness and loss of interest if opportunities for recreation do not exist. Therefore, it should be the duty of the director to see that the morale and good spirits of all are kept up. His recommendations as to the transfer to other military duties of medical officers, nurses, instructors or men who prove unsuited for this work should be acted upon whenever possible by the chief surgeon under whom the hospital serves. A man or a woman may prove unadapted to this work and yet be a valuable member of the staff of another kind of hospital. This subject is mentioned so particularly because of its great importance. The type of personnel will determine the success of this hospital and hence its usefulness to the army in a measure which is unknown in other military hospitals. It does not greatly matter whether the operating surgeon understands the personality of the soldier upon whom he is operating or not. Whether or not the physician treating a case of "shell shock" understands the personality of his patient spells success or failure.

The first special base hospital established for neuro-psychiatric cases should have so highly efficient a personnel that it will be able to contribute one third of its medical officers and trained workers to the next similar base hospital to be established, filling their places from those on its reserve list. This should be repeated a second time if necessary and thus a uniform standard of excellence and the same general approach to problems of treatment assured in each special base hospital organized in France.

(b) *Advanced Section of Lines of Communication.* The French and the British experience shows the great desirability of instituting treatment of "shell shock" cases as early as possible. So little has been done as yet in this direction that we do not know much about the onset of these cases and just what happens during the first few days. Such information as has been contributed, however, by the few neurologists and psychiatrists who have had an opportunity of working in casualty clearing stations or positions even nearer the front indicates that much can be done in dealing with these cases if they can be treated within a few hours after the onset of severe nervous symptoms. There are data to show that even by the time these cases are received at base hospitals additions have been made to the initial neurological disability and a coloring of invalidism given which frequently influences the prospects of recovery. It is desirable, therefore, to provide neuro-psychiatric wards for selected base hospitals in the advanced section of the lines of communication. Other base hospitals can send cases to those which possess such wards. The plan of providing such sections, in charge of neurologists and psychiatrists, for divisional base hospitals in the cantonment camps in the United States has been adopted by the Surgeon-General. If it is found practicable to make similar provisions in France, these units can accompany the divisions to which they are attached when they join the expeditionary forces in the spring of 1918. In the meantime it is essential that each base hospital should have on its staff a neurologist or a psychiatrist. Provision for the care of mental and nervous cases nearer the front, along the lines of communication, can best be developed, after the first special base hospital for neuro-psychiatric cases

has been established, by detaching from its staff individual officers as actual circumstances require.

It is undesirable to formulate plans for providing this kind of care still nearer the fighting line until a more careful study has been made of the results obtained by the English and French medical services in this undertaking. . . .

II. IN THE UNITED STATES

(a) *Mental Diseases (Insanity)*. If the policy is adopted of caring in France for mental cases likely to recover and evacuating all others to the United States at once or at the expiration of six months' treatment, we may expect to receive at the port of arrival in the United States not less than 250 insane soldiers per month from an expeditionary force of 1,000,000. . . . Well-organized facilities for dealing with mental disease exist in the United States which can be utilized by the government without the necessity of creating expensive new agencies.

It is obvious that the first facts to be determined in the case of soldiers reaching the United States while still suffering from mental disorders, or who have been invalided home after recovery from acute attacks, are:

1. The cause of the disorder, with special reference to military service.
2. The probable outcome.
3. The probable duration.
4. The special needs in treatment.

It is quite impossible to ascertain any of these facts by casual examination and so it will be necessary to provide "clearing hospitals" for non-commissioned officers and enlisted men where patients may be received and studied upon their arrival with the view of determining these questions. With an average annual admission rate of 3,000 patients, a clearing hospital of three hundred beds would permit an average period of treatment of thirty-six days. This would seem to be sufficient as the Boston Psychopathic Hospital, during an average period of treatment of eighteen days, not only determines similar questions but provides continued care for a considerable number of recoverable cases. Such clear-

ing hospitals should be established near the port of arrival and should be essentially military hospitals, with directors who are not only well trained in their medical duties but are familiar with the requirements of military life and with the institutional provisions in the United States that can be utilized for continued treatment.

With such active service as a clearing hospital will have, the number of medical officers should be not less than ten and there should be an adequate clerical force to care for the important administrative matters which would require attention. The organization of civil psychopathic hospitals in this country affords data for determining the proper size of the ward and domestic services.

After a period of observation and treatment the director of such hospital should be prepared to furnish the Special Distributing Board with information and definite recommendations as to the further disposal of each case.

Some patients will be found at the clearing hospitals to have recovered. Although, as a matter of military policy, these patients will not be available for duty again in France, they are still of military value to the government. Such soldiers should be returned to duty in the United States by the Special Distributing Board in a category which would prevent their being exposed again in the fighting line but which would indicate precisely the work for which they are suited. We can conceive of many such soldiers who are likely to break down again under the stress of actual fighting but who are quite likely to remain in good health if they are not so exposed. These men will have had valuable military experience and could render efficient service as instructors in training camps or in the performance of other military duties in the United States. Others who have recovered will give evidence of possessing such an unstable or inferior mental make-up that no further military life, even in the United States, is desirable. In such cases, recommendations should be made by the directors of the clearing hospitals to the Special Distributing Board to discharge them to their homes, with or without pensions as the circumstances demand.

There will be found others who have not been benefited at all by treatment in France and who suffer from mental

disorders with an extremely unfavorable outlook for recovery. When this conclusion seems justified, the directors of the clearing hospitals should recommend these cases for transfer to a suitable public or private institution in the states from which they enlisted and their discharge from the army, with or without pension as the circumstances demand.

Another group of cases will be made up of those suffering from psychoses which are probably recoverable. It is equally to the advantage of the army, the community and the patient that such soldiers be given continued treatment. Facilities for the care of mental diseases vary so greatly in many of the states that neither the army nor the patients can receive any assurance that proper treatment will be afforded if such soldiers are discharged to the public institution nearest their homes. In such cases the important question of discharge, with or without pension, should be deferred until every facility has been given, during a reasonable period of time, for recovery to take place. It is recommended, therefore, that these cases be retained in the army until their recovery or until the end of the war and ordered for treatment to state hospitals with which the Secretary of War has made contracts. A government hospital for the insane would be the most suitable for carrying out such treatment, but the present excellent institution in Washington has reached the size of 3,135 beds and can care for few additional military cases. It is highly desirable that the government should now establish a military hospital for mental diseases for the army and navy and permit the government hospital to devote all its resources to its civil duties. It would be impossible, however, to have such an institution ready within two years. If it were possible to construct such a new government hospital in a shorter time, it would still be necessary to provide for treatment by contract, for this institution would probably have to care for not more than 1,500 military cases during peace. A much larger number is to be expected during the war.

It is wiser to care for insane soldiers during the war under contract at ten or twelve first-class hospitals with fully adequate facilities for treatment than to distribute them solely with reference to the location of their homes. This will involve a certain hardship through making it difficult for such

men to be visited by their relatives and friends but it is possible to distribute the contract hospitals over the country in such way that there would be few cases more than a day's journey from their homes. The primary object is to insure recovery in all recoverable cases. This should outweigh all other considerations.

The legislation permitting the Secretary of War to make such contracts should state clearly that they shall be made only with institutions possessing facilities for treatment laid down by the Surgeon-General. . . . The contract hospitals should be required to devote an entire building of approved construction to military cases or to erect temporary structures meeting the necessary requirements for this purpose.

In order that the army may be able to discharge mental cases cared for under contract promptly upon their recovery or upon ascertaining that recovery is unlikely, it is desirable that a special board of three medical officers should be established to visit the institutions constantly and act as a Board of Survey. If a medical officer in each contract hospital were appointed in the Medical Reserve Corps and assigned to the duty of caring for army patients he could serve as a member of such board when convened at his hospital and make it possible for the three general members to cover much more ground.

Clearing wards for officers should be established to serve the special purposes indicated in the description of the clearing hospitals for enlisted men. Such wards should provide for the reception, classification, and treatment in cases likely to be of short duration. They might be established in connection with general hospitals at the port of arrival or in connection with very efficient private institutions for the insane in which full military control of this department could be secured.

It is equally important to provide for the continued treatment of officers and not to leave this question, in which the army has so great an interest, to chance or geographical convenience. Arrangement similar to those for the continued care of enlisted men in public contract hospitals could easily be made with the best, endowed private institutions for the insane.

(b) *War Neuroses ("Shell Shock")*. It is not necessary here to outline the organization of reconstruction centres for

the treatment of war neuroses in the United States. The general principles in treatment described in the foregoing report* and in the plan recommended for France should be a guide in the development of those centres.

It should be remembered that if the policy recommended of evacuating to the United States only the patients who fail to recover in six months in France is adopted, some very intractable cases will be received. For the most part these will be patients with a constitutional neuropathic make-up—the type most frequently seen in civil practice. Many of these cases will prove amenable to long-continued treatment and much can be expected from the mental effect of return to the United States. It is very important not to fall into the mistake made in England of discharging these severe cases with a pension because of the discouraging results of treatment. To do so will swell the pension list enormously, as can be seen by the fact that fifteen per cent. of all discharges from the British Army are unrecovered cases of mental diseases and war neuroses. Quite aside from financial considerations, however, is the injustice of turning adrift thousands of young men who developed their nervous disability through military service and who can find in their home towns none of the facilities required for their cure. It is recommended, therefore, that *no soldiers suffering from functional nervous diseases be discharged from the army until at least a year's special treatment has been given*. Furloughs can be given when visits home or treatment in civil hospitals will be beneficial but the government should neither evade the responsibility nor surrender the right to direct the treatment of these cases. A serious social and economic problem has been created in England already through the establishment in its communities of a group of chronic nervous invalids who have been prematurely discharged from the only hospitals existing for the efficient treatment of their illness. So serious is this problem that a special sanitarium "The Home of Recovery"—the first of several to be provided—has been established in London and subsidized by the War Office for the treatment of such cases among pensioners.

*See Mental Hygiene, Vol. I, No. 4.

It is highly important not to permit convalescent cases of this kind to be cared for in the ordinary type of convalescent camp or home. The surroundings so suitable for convalescents from wounds or other diseases are very harmful to neurotic cases. Here much that has been accomplished in special hospitals by patient, skilful work is undone. Therefore, special convalescent camps similar to those recommended for the expeditionary forces in France should be established within convenient reach of the reconstruction centres.

The special board recommended for the final disposition of mental cases should deal with cases of functional nervous diseases.

NON-EXPEDITIONARY FORCES

Facilities for the treatment of neuro-psychiatric cases at the camps in the United States have been approved by the Surgeon-General and are now being provided. These will undoubtedly prove sufficient for dealing temporarily with mental cases developing in the non-expeditionary forces. Their final disposition should be made by means of the same mechanism recommended for expeditionary patients who are invalided home, except that the functions of the clearing hospital for mental diseases can be performed by the neuro-psychiatric wards of divisional hospitals and that of the special board by the Board of Survey composed of the neurologists and psychiatrists stationed at the camps.

Neuroses are very common among soldiers who have never been exposed to shell fire and will undoubtedly be seen frequently among non-expeditionary troops in this country. In England nearly thirty per cent. of all men from the home forces admitted to one general hospital were suffering from various neuroses.* Most of these were men of very neurotic make-up. Many had had previous nervous breakdowns. Fear, even in the comparatively harmless camp exercises, was a common cause of neurotic symptoms. Heart symptoms were exceedingly common. The same experience in our own training camps can be confidently predicted.

The responsibility of the government in such cases is obviously different from that in soldiers returning from duty

*Burton-Fanning, F. W. *Neurasthenia in Soldiers of the Home Forces*. *Lancet* (London). 1: 907-11 (June 16, 1917.)

abroad. In the neuro-psychiatric wards of divisional hospitals the important and difficult question of diagnosis can be well determined. Most such cases should be discharged from the service. Some can be treated at the reconstruction centres for, unfortunately, there are scarcely any provisions in the United States for the treatment of the neuroses except in the case of the rich. It is freely predicted in England that the wide prevalence of the neuroses among soldiers will direct attention to the fact that this kind of illness has been almost wholly ignored while great advances have been made in the treatment of all others. In civil life one still hears of detecting hysteria, as if it were a crime and, although the wounded burglar is carefully and humanely treated in the modern city hospital, the hysteric is usually driven away from its doors. Today the enormous number of these cases among some of Europe's best fighting men is leading to a revision of the medical and popular attitude toward functional nervous diseases.

MENTAL HYGIENE AND THE GREAT WAR*

BY GEORGE A. HASTINGS

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Only a rash observer would attempt to state thus early what effect the Great War will eventually have on mental hygiene, and what effect mental hygiene will have on the Great War. How much the war will stimulate or retard the organized mental health movement will not be fully apparent until the war is over, and perhaps not for a longer time. To what extent mental hygiene will contribute to the morale and stamina of the armed forces cannot be seen yet, especially by those of us who are so far behind the fighting lines.

But some trends of these mutual results are already discernible and they are extremely significant. During the last decade or so, the country-wide, organized movement for the prevention of mental disorders, for the establishment of higher standards of treatment and for the promotion of mental hygiene generally, has been prosecuted with extraordinary vigor. National and state organizations have been patiently and persistently informing the public of essential facts about the nature, causes and prevention of mental diseases. From time to time, evidence that this information was proving a vital force for good has been seen in the advanced steps taken by various commonwealths and communities in providing better facilities for treatment, in establishing clinics and in improving methods of dealing with delinquents. But no one knew just how deeply the fundamental idea of organized public work to conserve mental health had taken root in the public mind.

It was with genuine gratification, therefore, that mental hygiene workers everywhere saw the importance given to mental hygiene in the nation's war program. As soon as war was declared, or, in fact, as soon as preparedness measures came actively to the front, before a state of war existed, a

*Read before the Pennsylvania State Homeopathic Medical Society, Scranton, Pa., September 19, 1917.

substantial number of writers in the medical and lay press and periodicals, speakers on the public platform, military men and civilians, officials and private citizens, began to emphasize the need of sound mental as well as physical health to help win the war.

In a variety of ways it was pointed out that brains and stamina are needed to win the war; that in the end, the health of the people will decide the struggle; that on the health of the nation will depend the number and kind of men it can send to the fighting lines and keep supplied with the essentials of modern warfare.

So it is evident, even now, that the war has already had one important effect on mental hygiene: It has demonstrated beyond doubt that mental hygiene has "arrived"; that organized work to promote mental health is no longer an experiment, but has become a vital part of all public health work and is contributing to national stability and supremacy.

This public opinion, wisely brought to a focus by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, resulted promptly in governmental measures to make certain that, so far as possible, men with mental disorders should not be enrolled in the new armies, and that adequate steps should be taken to provide proper treatment for cases of mental diseases, developing in concentration camps and in the field. This is the first attempt of any nation to raise an army free from men mentally and nervously unfit.

The National Committee for Mental Hygiene was asked by the Federal Government to help provide psychiatric hospital service, to suggest plans for psychiatric examination of recruits and in general to help formulate mental health measures in connection with the new army. To facilitate the work of furnishing psychiatric hospital units in this country and abroad, it appointed a strong special committee.

In an incredibly short time, the National Committee has helped to organize several psychiatric units, attached to appropriate base hospitals in the United States and in France, with the effectiveness of the units assured by their becoming integral parts of the military hospitals.

Up to this date about 200 psychiatrists and neurologists have dropped their accustomed tasks and taken up some form

of war work. Some will man the psychiatric units, some are examining men in the cantonments, and others are examining candidate officers in student training camps. Most of them have taken out a commission for the duration of the war. Their becoming medical officers of the army will greatly increase their usefulness. Altogether, their work, though still in its early stages, is inspiring and gives promise of far-reaching results.

Insanity always increases in wartime. The increased prevalence of mental disorders in military life as compared with civil life is borne out by statistics from many sources. Mental diseases were approximately three times as prevalent among troops on the Mexican border a year ago as among the adult civilian population of New York State. The excess among soldiers is still higher under war conditions. In the United States army the insanity rate rose during the Spanish-American war from 8 per 1,000 to 20 per 1,000.

Available statistics indicate that an army of 500,000 men may be counted upon to furnish 1,500 insane patients a year in peace, and not fewer than 4,500 a year in war, or even perhaps in times of rapid mobilization.

For cases of mental disorder inevitably developing among soldiers on account of the unusual strain, new environments of various kinds and changed conditions of living, special provision is necessary. Otherwise mental cases would for the most part be maintained in prison wards. Special hospital wards conducted by specialists will not only facilitate more rapid and complete recovery from psychoses, but will remove disturbing elements from the general wards. In addition to the cases of insanity and mental defect, all armies have to deal with considerable numbers of soldiers with hysteria and neurasthenia. The prevalence of these disorders increases greatly during wartime and at times of large mobilization.

Of course, it is encouraging and stimulating to see such intelligent and adequate steps taken to assure an effective, healthy army and to assure the proper treatment for mental disorders which develop in the fighting forces. But even more significant, is the effect which this public and official recognition of the importance of mental hygiene will have on the mental health movement generally. After all, only a relatively

small proportion of us will go into the trenches. Perhaps one-tenth of our 100,000,000 population will go. The mental health of the remaining 90,000,000 is a profoundly important question. Brains and stamina are needed not only to win the war, but for stability after the war. It has been said that the war will be decided in 1935,—that the true victory will lie not so much in the gains on the battlefield, as in the quality of the men and women who are left to carry on the world's work after the war. War kills off the best and we must redouble our energies to save the rest from becoming human waste material.

We are fighting for democracy. We hear a great deal these days about democracy. But true democracy is not mere freedom from despotic government. It is predicated on freedom from the taint and drag of the preventable forms of both mental and physical disease and defect. "A sound mind in a sound body" is the greatest need of this day and hour and of the country's to-morrow.

EDUCATIONAL PREPAREDNESS FOR AFTER THE WAR

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If this were the place it could be shown that nearly all that is powerful and noble, as well as all that is despicable, in modern Germany is largely the lengthened shadow of four great educational leaders. The Kantian stern doctrine of obedience to duty as understood, regardless of personal feeling; the Fichtean belief in the great destiny of their race and in the power of the unconquerable will; the Hegelian concept of the state as the representation of the divine on earth and the consequent moral obligation of all to yield to it unquestioning obedience; and the frightful, anti-Christian, super-man doctrine of Nietzsche; all these, accepted by the leaders and translated for the people into laws, customs, and institutions, and taught to the children in song, in literature, in drama, in pageant, in text books and in school life, have made the German nation at once the marvel and the abomination of the world.

No better illustration could be found of the power of ideals and the danger of accepting false or narrow concepts as a basis for school or national life. With ideals narrow, all life is narrow; with the nation's ideals false, the whole national life will soon be full of error and unutterable woe be brought to the nation and to the world. Germany sowed the wind, and both she and we are reaping a whirlwind. The supreme question for us is what are we going to sow now?

This war is steadily burning away the dross from many of our traditional ideals. The process will continue and the pace accelerate. The races of earth are mingling in the trenches as never before. Millions of active, intelligent young men are inspecting first-hand the institutions and ideals of allied nations. Women are taking a share before undreamed of in doing the work and molding the sentiment of the world. The

peril and strain of a war-to-the-death have shattered established ways of doing and thinking over the entire earth. Verily we are already living in a new age, and as soon as the nations are released from the strain of war these enlightened, earnest, fearless minds now busy fighting and thinking are going to translate into laws, institutions, customs and enterprises the new ideals and concepts which have come to them in this world cataclysm. The world can never be the same again. The time is fraught with the greatest possibilities and the gravest dangers, and it is well that the National Institute should be directing the thought of the leaders of our nation now to the question of the reconstruction after the war.

Above all other things in importance because all others ultimately derive their power or their weakness therefrom, is the reconstruction of the nation's educational system. France and England have already appointed committees to study this problem and the beginnings of comprehensive new schemes of education have been made. What will be the changes demanded, what should be the new ideals of education set for our people? Obviously this will depend somewhat upon the results of the war. Should Germany succeed in forcing an inconclusive peace, then every nation will turn to the military ideal and with feverish haste use its educational system to promote that economic and industrial efficiency necessary to war, and to inculcate those narrow concepts of national superiority and that ideal of unquestioning obedience which are the handmaids of every Junkerdom. If, as we believe they will, the Allies succeed in upholding the ideals of democracy and international justice, supported by an international court with international police, then the world will be free to enter upon an era of spiritual and civic reconstruction and uplift that staggers the human imagination.

The certainty with which one would predict the exact details of this needed and surely coming reconstruction is probably in direct proportion to one's ignorance and lack of imagination. No thoughtful man could look at the changes that have taken place in the United States during the past year and the kaleidoscopic revolutions that are following fast on one another in Russia and think that human imagination is able to comprehend enough of the details to predict the future

with certainty. Some things, however, seem plain enough to justify the nation in acting upon them in its program of preparedness, which unfortunately cannot wait for certainty. Let us, therefore, consider a few of these facts as they affect our future educational preparedness. What must our nation do and be in order to meet the demands that will be made upon it, and to render the largest service to humanity in the years that follow the war?

First. Our educational system must become vastly more extensive. In England, from Prime Minister to labor unions, the demand has come not only for universal elementary education but for universal free secondary and higher education for all capable of receiving it, regardless of wealth or station. This war has been a continuing revelation of the power of education and of the utter impossibility of any half-educated nation's longer defending itself from foes without or enemies within. Now, not an army but a whole nation carries on a war. What is true of military contests is also now recognized as equally true of the commercial competition of peace. At last even the politicians and business men are recognizing that the youth of the nation are its greatest natural resource, the creative resource which gives value to all other resources.

Again, no one is now so blind as not to see that democracy without education must be either a farce or a crime. Aristotle pointed out two thousand years ago that democracy was a very complicated process of government and could exist only when a people were educated enough to understand the process. Russia and Mexico have given ocular demonstrations that enable even the graduates of the trade school to understand what the great Greek philosopher has long taught the learned. Mr. Herbert Fisher, the head of the English educational system, recently gave expression to the view now commonly accepted when he said: "The nation which after the war employs the best teachers with the highest pay and as a part of the best school system will be the best governed and therefore the greatest nation. . . . Where teaching is inferior good government can not be expected."

Not only must the educational agencies for the young be greatly enlarged and strengthened, but through night schools, continuation schools and other forms of extension education

must the efficiency and capacity for self-government of those already beyond school age be developed. Furthermore, all this must be done now. After the war it will be too late. If the present exodus of teachers and pupils from our schools continues to increase during a probably long war, our military laurels will turn to ashes in our hands in the midst of the problems of peace that follow.

Second. Our educational system must become more national. Russia has gone to pieces for lack of common ideals, England has floundered, the Allies have blundered, and we have required three years of cruel experience to find our national mind—all for want of adequate national education. The end is not yet, and no man can count the blood and treasure which lack of education to common national ideals has cost, and is continuing to cost, our nation. At last we are recognizing that certain minor elements of individual liberty must be subordinated to secure the wider liberty of organized society and the protection from the powers that prey, both national and corporate. Our national government must take a larger share in inspiring the social and civic ideals of our schools, and must work out a well balanced scheme of national coöperation in education that will secure not merely national economic efficiency but ideals of democracy and national aspirations sufficiently uniform to make an effective nation, without retarding local effort or crushing out that individuality and variety out of which come all progress and from which both individuals and nations derive their charm.

This means the building up neither of an Americanized German *kultur* nor of a Prussian military system, but it does mean that in the future the government must see to it that every child reared in our midst shall learn our language, shall know the history of the struggle of our forefathers for liberty, their heroism and high ideals in establishing this nation, their courage in defending it, the nation's high and holy purpose in this war and in the democratic peace that is to follow. A democracy is impossible if any large portion of our people fail to learn the meaning of democracy—its obligations as well as its privileges. The nation, and not local, hyphenated "alliances" or "sons," must in future look to the ideals taught our children in our schools and must likewise provide adequate

means of educating the adult immigrants who come to our shores.

Third. Our educational system must become more international. Whether we will or no, for better or for worse, our nation has passed forever out of its former state of selfish, egotistic isolation, and has accepted its share of responsibility for the world-order in which we live. Our people are indeed ill-prepared to meet this responsibility. Our schools must in future better interpret to our children the institutions and ideals of other great nations and peoples, in order that our citizens may have that sympathy and appreciative understanding of our neighbors which are essential to the establishment of mutually helpful relations with them.

The five million soldiers, religious workers, diplomats and business men returning from Europe and Asia, where they have learned to love their comrades in arms and appreciate their institutions and ideals, will not allow their children to grow up in the narrow provincial atmosphere in which most of us imbibed that national conceit and intolerance which not only hinder our international economic progress but perpetuate the ignorance and ill feeling that foster war.

Fourth. Our educational system must become more democratic. The monarchical system of organization and discipline now in our schools and colleges must yield to a system of gradually increasing self-government, which gives the children the ideals and the practice that prepare for self-governing citizenship in a democracy. The subject matter of the schools must also be broadened beyond the mathematics, classics, and other formal, so-called culture studies to include a democratic education which will meet the manifold needs of different types of men in the most varied fields of necessary work, as well as the universal needs of citizenship. Sad as it is to some estimable scholars, we are going to have to recognize that all students will not take the same course, and that we must count as education anything that helps a man to do better his work in the world, or to meet more effectively his responsibilities as man, neighbor, parent, or citizen.

Fifth. Education must be made more useful, more vital, less formal. Pupils, patrons and teachers are going to take education more seriously and be unwilling to give so large a

proportion of time in school to studies that are formal or topics that do not relate themselves intimately to life as they are living it. This means that there will be more of vocational education and better vocational education, but it does not mean that the schools are going to give all their energy to the teaching of manual arts or of the principles and practices of the business world, for these are the vocations of but a fraction of our citizens, and make up but a fraction of the life even of those engaged in them. The frightful catastrophe of Germany and of the world has burned it into the mind of every thoughtful man and woman that there are many useful and necessary things to be taught besides technical skill and a knowledge of the physical forces of material production—for instance, moral principles, human sympathy, appreciation of the contributions of others, modesty in considering one's own accomplishments, and a social viewpoint in life. This nation would have defended its civil organization against Prussian militarism in vain if it should turn over its educational system to the ideal of Teutonic industrial efficiency. There must be more of the humanities taught than ever before—not all of the aristocratic traditional lumber of the pedants, now called the humanities, which we have dragged along for generations, but those aspects of literature and language and history that reveal to man his own powers and possibilities, teach him his debt to other nations and to those who have gone before, and furnish diversion for his leisure, solace for his sorrows, and inspiration and guidance for his life. Also, the newer biological and social sciences will need to be studied as never before to solve the multiplex problems of social and civic readjustment in the new nations of the earth that are to rise from the ashes of the empires that have burned to the ground. Problems of production, which must be solved by natural science, will still need further study; but vastly more will the problems of distribution and of human relation come to the front, and the thoroughness with which our schools teach the fundamentals of social science to our citizens will determine the wisdom with which the social opportunities are grasped and the social dangers averted.

Sixth. The health and physical development of the youth of the nation will be looked after in school and home as never

before. The nation that has banished alcohol and sexual debauchery from its army and navy, has taken charge of the food supply and the housing of its workers, forbidden the exploitation of its women and children and laborers, will have seen a light that cannot be blinked when the war is over and the millions made whole and strong and happy by health return to their homes.

Seventh. Our schools must give an attention to the protection of the health and the development of the minds and characters of our women that has never been given before. Women are not only assuming the responsibilities of citizenship and going into all the occupations of man, but they are developing a recognition of the complex and subtle demands of their own peculiar work for which our educational system—of, by, and for men—does not give adequate preparation. Our schools will continue to be co-educational—this is all the more necessary now—but better provision must be made for their adjustment to woman's more sensitive and precocious body, her mental traits, and her peculiar field of greatest usefulness.

Eighth. The school as well as society must recognize the emergence of the laboring masses. Certainly they must have vocational education to make efficient producers, but they are going to be "producing" only about six or eight hours a day. What preparation is the school to give for the other sixteen or eighteen hours each day and the twenty-four on Sunday? If we do not show more intelligent recognition of this problem than we have in the past, then the "production" of 'isms and impossible Bolshevist dreams during the leisure hours may more than offset the material production of the working hours. Since the laboring people will have leisure and will have a large share in determining the policies of the nation, the national school system must prepare them to enjoy worthily their leisure and exercise wisely their new political power.

To vocational training must be added in school and in continuation-school an appreciation of music, art, and literature, and such elementary study of the fundamental principles of social and economic sciences as will make impossible the domination of the demagogue and the delusion that something can come from nothing or two and two make a dozen.

None of these post-war demands is entirely new, none is impossible. A gradual process of social evolution has long been slowly pushing them into the view of forward-looking men. But, as some one has said, war breaks the crust of stale customs, tests the weak places of our social armor, scraps many outworn beliefs, and forces the unimaginative to look forward instead of backward. Let us win this war by all means, but while we are winning it let us take stock of the coming needs of peace and give our citizenship the education that will lead out of the hideous night of this war of autocracy to the sunlight of a real democracy and a federation of free nations.

AFTER-THE-WAR FOOD PROBLEMS

BY CHARLES LATHROP PACK
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In these days of wartime food problems it is important to look ahead to the days of reconstruction which will come with the ending of the conflict. With the cessation of hostilities America and Europe will have food requirements no less vital than those with which they are now struggling. The return of the troops will bring with it a new phase of the food problem. Vast as the needs are at the present time, they will be of even greater importance to the individual when peace shall have been established. The ending of the war will restore from ten to fifteen million men to their homes throughout the allied countries. During wartime the maintenance of these men is a problem for governments. To feed them after the war will be the problem of individuals. The responsibility will no longer rest on governments as governments, but it will be no less a matter of public concern when it becomes a responsibility of people as people and nations as nations. In this duty America will still be a leading factor, as she is in the emergency of war, and her war gardens will be essential to the solution of the difficult situation.

The success of the war garden in America during the present troublous times brings up a vision of the war garden after the war, when reconstruction will be the central thought of the world. In Europe this reconstruction will manifest itself in building anew the countries devastated by ruthless warfare. To this will be added the rebuilding of a continent's man-power, through readjustment of the entire human fabric of nations impoverished by combat. In both of these phases America must play the part of an allied nation which had no less at stake in the great conflict, but which, let us hope, was happily spared the localized warring, with its attendant ruin.

In this reconstruction the war garden will have an importance which may be readily foreseen. Not only must this

mighty nation contribute to the upbuilding of Europe's wrecked cities, ruined territory and demolished industries, but she will also have a continuing responsibility in the matter of feeding the people of the allied nations. It is not reasonable to expect that Europe can emerge from protracted warfare and immediately assume the burden of self-dependence. To restore battle-torn farms to fertile productiveness will be a mighty problem and a tedious process. Men who have worked with the Belgium Relief Commission and who have had intimate contact with the food problems of Europe since the beginning of the war tell me that our national duty in the feeding of our Allies will cover a period of not less than five years after the consummation of peace. That they are correct in this estimate I firmly believe.

Herein lies the future of the war garden as an after-the-war factor in reconstruction. We all recognize that the home gardening movement has been vital to the food supply during the time of war. The National War Garden Commission has achieved international recognition for its work in stimulating and helping to make successful the cultivation of backyards and other land hitherto untilled. This year's yield of \$350,000,000 in food products on this new planting area is more eloquent than words in establishing the war garden as an institution. The closely related achievement of 500,000,000 jars of canned goods stored for winter by American households serves to emphasize the usefulness of the Commission and its nation wide propaganda for food production and food conservation.

With these results as our premise and with the present and post-war needs of Europe and America as our incentive, I am convinced that the next few years will show the war gardens of 1917 to have been just a beginning. Experience and success will prove mighty factors in the expansion of home food production and conservation. When the war is ended, be it next year or thereafter, our gardens will have expanded prodigiously and will fulfill their obligation in the matter of feeding America and the nations which need and merit our helpfulness.

But it is not merely in the reconstruction of Europe that these gardens will play their part after the war. America will

have reconstruction processes within her own borders. Soldiers in untold hundreds of thousands, or even in millions, will come back to civil life from camp and field and trench. Many thousands of these will be wounded or otherwise unfitted for the work of factory or shop. Many of them will find in the war gardens an outlet for such energy as they may have and a source of supply for some of the needs of themselves and their families. By war garden work they will contribute to the national resources and to their own support.

Those of us who have stayed at home during the war will likewise find renewed usefulness in these after-the-war gardens. By the experience gained through emergency gardens under the spur of wartime necessity we shall have learned that the home garden is useful in more ways than one. We shall have learned that its contribution in the form of food is equalled by its contribution in the form of health. The outdoor work and outdoor interest, with abundance of nourishing foodstuffs fresh from our own gardens, will have made America a healthier, happier and hardier nation, more self-contained and less self-centered. These and other lessons of the war will have made the country more independent and at the same time more conscious of the interdependence of nations. The war garden therefore will be an important factor in the work of reconstruction. It will help Europe to rebuild, much as it is now helping to win the war. For these reasons peace will automatically translate the wartime helpfulness of the war garden into an after-the-war necessity.

THE FREE TRADERS OF AMERICA, THEIR IDEALS, THEIR POLICY AND THEIR IMMEDIATE AIMS

BY GEORGE HAVEN PUTNAM

The purpose of any body of men who work intelligently to bring about a change in national or in international policies is, of necessity, two-fold.

The final aim, which represents the ideal, is, of course, never to be forgotten or obscured. It must from time to time be restated with full emphasis for the guidance and for the inspiration of the believers, and for the information also of the opponents; but the immediate effort must be given to the things next in order, the things that may be accomplished now, and the accomplishment of which constitutes the present duty. The final aim of our American Free Traders includes the abolition of tariff barriers, the freeing of trade from all unnecessary burdens and exactions.

Interferences with trade relations and with freedom of exchange are costly. They lessen the productiveness of industry and diminish the returns to be secured for labor and for capital. In so doing, they diminish the resources of the world, or at least diminish the legitimate increase of those resources.

In this year 1918, our world, exhausted by war, has pressing need of all of its resources. Any action that prevents the fullest possible use of labor and of capital, in whatever way these may be operating, for lessening misery and restoring comfort, constitutes a crime against humanity. But the injury of interference with freedom of trade relations does more than to lessen the value of human effort. Freedom of exchange, a widening of trade relations, delivered from unnecessary and artificial barriers, means not only a widening of the exchange of goods, but an exchange of men, of correspondence, of information, of ideas. It is a truism to say that prejudices, whether personal or international, rest in large part, in chief part, upon ignorance. Freedom of trade, which means free-

dom of intercourse, tends, of course, to lessen the ignorance and to diminish the risk, one may say the certainty, of international prejudices.

Nations can have with each other but two sets of relations, one based on force and one on exchange. The larger the interchange of men between any two countries, the closer the web of commercial interests that as a result of trade relations is built up between two countries, the larger comes to be the knowledge of each about the other. The exchange of travelers, and above all the exchange of books, the transmission of literature, means the exchange of ideas. It is through the largest possible circulation of literature, which ought to be restricted by no political boundaries or restrictions, that there is produced the exchange of ideas. It is in this way that people learn to think, act, and to feel together. It is through the knowledge that has finally come to us Americans of the ideals for which France and England and Italy are fighting that we are now able not only to feel together, but to fight together.

The immediate duty before our Free Traders is to use their influence to prevent at the settlement after the war the increase of the existing tariff barriers and the creation of any new barriers. We protest against the scheme of economic boycott, which means economic war, proposed by the Paris Conference. This scheme is itself an admission of the fact that protective systems, in addition to being the frequent cause of war, do themselves constitute a form of war. They are an extension of a state of war. Economic war does not involve, at least directly, the slaying of the opponents or competitors, but it does from time to time bring about the ruin of these competitors. It constitutes not only a restriction, but an aggression upon the freedom of action of citizens on both sides of the boundary line which is made a barrier. It is an interference with the right belonging to all peoples to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Any restriction placed upon freedom of action, which is an essential factor in the pursuit of happiness, must show very good cause indeed for its continued existence. Through extended business relations and continued personal association there results not only busi-

ness advantage, but the larger service of development of character and of mutual confidence.

With the close of this war we should arrive at a new theory of the State, and this theory should express full antagonism to the "divine state" theory upheld by the Kaiser and the militaristic gang of Prussia. We hold, in opposition to Treitschke and William of Prussia, and to Germany as now constituted under the lead of Prussia, that the State exists for the individual and not the individual for the State. We hope by this war to overthrow the pernicious doctrine that either a state, or an individual is to be permitted, under the world's law, to press its own development at the expense of the rights, the interests, the safety of its neighbor.

We Free Traders look forward to seeing the political lines become in the near future of less and less importance. The nations that have been fighting together with identical aims, the maintenance of civilization, the preservation of human rights, will have a strong incentive to continue to work together in time of peace. It is only, however, with the lessening of tariff barriers, with the passing of the idea that there can be final profit to a nation through crushing, or ruining, or despoiling its neighbors, that the larger idea of state relation can take shape.

The Prussian belief that any nation can assume for itself a special authority from the Lord to dominate and despoil its neighbors, has not been, and cannot be, accepted by America; but, if we repudiate Prussianism, we must repudiate its twin brother protectionism. We must make clear to the world that, irrespective even of ethics or of human relation, there is more advantage to be secured from one's neighbor by trading with him than by killing him, or by bringing him to ruin. Prussianism is but an extreme development of protectionism, —the belief that a nation has to fight for its own development and that only in so doing can it secure lasting advantage.

If America is to do its part in the final settlement towards the organization of a League of Nations, a league based on justice, a league the purpose of which will be to maintain peace throughout the world, America must modify the policy of protection which it has maintained during half a century. Many of us believe that in advance of the constitution of a

League of Nations, the shaping of which may easily take years, our Republic should, after our war alliance with England has come to an end, bring about at once an alliance in whatever form may be found most effective, a combination at least of the English-speaking peoples of the world. Such a combination could itself, in advance of the organization of the lakes, and to build up through freedom of exchange with

An important step, however, towards such a combination of the English-speaking peoples would be a change in our national policy, a change which would enable us to trade on equal terms with Britain, to smash the tariff barriers along the Lakes, and to build up through freedom of exchange with Australasia a great trade in the Pacific. That would have value from the commercial point of view; but the larger, the essential thing is that through such a combination, first of the English-speaking peoples and then of the civilized states of the world, we should make a great step forward in the relations of humanity, and in the development of civilization.

THE MILITARY, INDUSTRIAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH FEATURES OF NARCOTIC ADDICTION*

BY CHARLES F. STOKES, A.M., M.D., D.S.C., LL.D.

It behooves us at this time carefully to consider, from every angle, all possible sources of man-power in order that we may claim for service many who believe themselves incapacitated for work, and force to purposeful effort others, who have sought exemption by reason of acquired or assumed physical deficiencies.

Distributed over the country are hordes of drug users in the age of conscription, who, if drafted, must either claim exemption by reason of addiction, or, if accepted, must later be discharged as undesirable, or unable to serve, unless steps are taken to conserve this loss.

In some sections of the country heroin claims ninety per cent. of the narcotic victims. Nearly all of these persons are in the period of adolescence. It is difficult to say just how many addicts there are in the United States. The number may be surmised, however, when we consider the figures of a federal official who recently reported at a public hearing in New York City that there are one million drug users in New York State alone. At the other end of the line we have the estimate of M. I. Wilbert, U. S. P. H. S., that there were 175,000 addicts in the United States some four or five years ago. It is understood that these latter figures were based largely on estimates of the importation and sale of opium through trade channels, and that the appalling spread of heroin addiction and smuggling did not figure in the count.

We have made a careful study of this type of individual and find, for example, that the heroin users represent the norm for their respective grades in society; the percentage of feeble-minded among them is around six; few had been convicted of felonies; many had been arrested for minor offenses; after appropriate treatment nearly all promptly re-

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gained their physical balance and later mental stability. It is known that drugs that depress function bring about no permanent structural tissue change demonstrable by laboratory methods. If this be true, then we have before us a monster group, a large proportion of which is capable of complete mental and physical rehabilitation, provided effective measures are employed. Within reach we have man-power of enormous proportions, either for enlistment in the military forces or enrollment in the war industries. It would be illogical to look for one-hundred per cent. efficiency at the outset from individuals in this group, should they be enrolled in the military services or in the war industries, for addiction runs counter to close and continued application to any task and tends to rob the individual of the love of work for work's sake; and he is denied the joy of service for reasons that will be set forth presently. He is rarely an adept in the manual trades.

Let us see if we cannot come to a better understanding of the narcotic addict and his attitude toward society, so that we may learn to know him as he is, and not as he is generally supposed to be. For purpose of study and intelligent application of remedial measures, we must recognize distinct types among addicts, such as the intemperate and impulsive adolescent heroin user, who is usually profoundly poisoned and at low nutritional ebb; the pipe smoker, calm and serene, showing little apparent nutritional change; the psychopath, who was a psychopath before he became an addict; the unfortunate accidental type, who has fallen into addiction through the pain of injury or disease, sometimes the physician's victim; the temperate and discreet morphinists, among whom we frequently see the pale, fat, flabby type, suggestive of athyroidism. In each case temperament has a perceptible influence on the course of the addiction. In all cases, no matter what their origin, or what form of opium they may be using, we find among addicts certain features in common that to our mind explain society's attitude toward the addict, and the addict's behavior toward the community. Further, these characteristics have a direct bearing upon military, industrial, economic, social, criminal and public health problems.

No matter whether or not the addiction is a crowd, or gang, contamination, at the beginning, as is commonly the case with pipe smokers and heroin users, sooner or later the condition develops individualistic features; the indulgence becomes secret and solitary, and what might well be called a "shut-in" personality impresses itself on the unfortunate's character. Each day there arises from within an imperative demand for the agent that will save him from discomfort and will permit him to avoid the appearance of emotional stress; this he must secure at all hazards, clandestinely, of course, for the law says he must not have it. His day's work is constantly overshadowed by thoughts of the time for the administration of his drug. In this frame of mind the addict must lack, under most promising conditions, ability to think clearly and to give full attention to the problems from without. If he misses his usual medication he develops abstinence symptoms which dominate his behavior until he gets relief. This familiar picture, if carefully studied, convinces us that the addict is quite unable to adjust himself to the demands and restrictions of military service, where men must accept standardized equipment, housing, food and the like, quite remote from the "facilities" on which the variant must depend in community life. Hence the necessity for the painstaking mental and physical examinations at recruiting stations.

Not only is the addict unable to measure up to the requirements of military service but he is usually unable to meet the full exactions of community life. He is often in conflict with law, is commonly a drag in the industrial world, yet he may accomplish a measure of security in fields where emotional flights have a value. He rarely figures as a financial asset; he is often an economic burden and very commonly a public health menace.

If the foregoing is accepted, then it is plain that we have enormous values in man-power going to waste. Individuals in this unfortunate condition may desire to serve, but realize they are unable properly to prepare themselves for service by their own efforts, and they have little or no knowledge of agencies to which they can apply for relief.

Here is a military problem, an industrial condition, and a public health menace, worthy of immediate attention on the

part of federal and state authorities. Unattached physicians could, in our opinion, render conspicuous patriotic service by entering this field, provided a plan for action is laid before them and they are qualified by training to grasp the technical features of effective measures.

What plan of organized effort will best meet this situation? In order to determine this it will be well to keep clearly before us some features of the pathology of addiction, so that our methods shall not be haphazard, ineffective, and incapable of a measure of uniformity. In the prolonged use of opium and its narcotic derivatives it is generally conceded that we are dealing with chronic depression of nervous functions, and, further, this depression involves the ductless glands and other organs that have to do with metabolism. In consequence, there are often marked disturbances of nutrition, and possibly subsidiary intoxications. It has been shown that on sharp withdrawal of drugs that depress nervous functions we bring about a back-sway, or counterfeit stimulation. In the sharp withdrawal of narcotics we have ample evidence of intense crises in the vegetative nervous system, as shown by the hyper-reactivity to emotional stimuli; at this time there is an inhibition to stimuli at psychic levels. In other words, the individual in this condition is dominated by the horror-fear emotion, and he must and will get relief at any cost. The restrictions of law and the ideals of society find no response in this unfortunate. As the emotional and inhibitory features of the case subside, we find a mind keyed up in suggestibility which must be taken into account in every scheme of after-care, or what might better be called re-education.

If we are able to avert this emotional outburst, we hasten convalescence, save the patient from much intense suffering, and make him amenable to re-education in a military atmosphere in a shorter time. We shall always have to take into account nutritional damage in each case and effects of addiction on the nervous system other than those already briefly alluded to.

While it has been amply demonstrated that addicts can be taken off their drug without much distress, and early convalescence thus initiated (Surgeon General's Report, U. S. P. H. S., 1917), no further allusion to methods of treatment

will be made in this article, and it is hoped that the problem may be approached without prejudice and with wholesome coöperation on all sides.

No scheme of procedure can be satisfactorily carried out until we have federal control of the distribution of narcotics, hospital facilities for the care of women addicts, licensing of physicians qualified to treat addiction, supervision over sanitariums, and, above all, the abolition of heroin. In some sections, as noted, heroin addiction is a curse.

In our opinion a comprehensive plan for dealing with this problem should include a Collecting Station in, or near, each great center. To these stations addicts might be referred by the draft boards, going voluntarily or being sent by court procedure. Any large building with small spaces, preferably in an enclosure, would answer for this purpose. Here addicts could be taken off their drug and after this has been accomplished they would be ready to be moved on to the Reclamation Colony for the necessary re-educational after-care. Abandoned military camps or existing rural colonies would serve admirably the purposes of the reclamation plant. At this Colony kindly yet forceful discipline should prevail, such as one finds in our military camps. At this point addicts could be classified, studied and when ready for transfer would pass on to the Zone of Disposition, prepared for assignment, each case on its merits.

Many might be enlisted for military service, more no doubt would be better fitted for industrial pursuits, while still others would be found unfitted for any war obligation. Some, no doubt, would require hospital treatment or should be continued in addiction for humane reasons. Federal recruiting officers and existing industrial employment agencies would no doubt provide for the needs of the Zone of Disposition.

While the writer was in charge of New York City's colony for drug addicts and alcoholics, it was clearly demonstrated that drug addicts could be controlled by enlightened methods of discipline and administration on an open farm without guards, and with the employment of few punitive measures. They took kindly to purposeful work when adequate recreational outlets were provided. Naturally those who had not been previously injured to arduous physical tasks could hardly

be expected to do a man's share of heavy farm work at the outset. Afterwards, however, many took up this means of gaining a livelihood and found employment on neighboring farms. The longer they remained under these colony conditions, the closer they approached the normal in every way. The writer has had men with criminal records serving in his household and has had no occasion to regret the experiment. The defections commonly charged to addicts are in the majority of cases largely due to the demands of the dominating impulsiveness of beginning or actual drug abstinence.

When these men were given employment away from former pals and old surroundings, they almost invariably did well. If, however, they returned to old associates or to their former domiciles and were confronted by sellers or addicted women, they commonly relapsed. This was conspicuously so with the adolescent heroinists. Stanley Hall and others have emphasized the fact that the attitude of the adolescent crowd sets at naught the restraining influences of religion, deterrent law, and home training. As heroin is the contaminating agent in the great majority of cases among adolescents, it should be abolished, particularly as this can be done without materially harming or discomforting the sick. Unless this is accomplished and our young addicts seek new fields of industry, we shall fail to break up this vicious circle; in fact, we shall find ourselves in the absurd endeavor of trying to "cure" adolescence. The necessity for the restrictive and legislative measures suggested above is evident.

It is time that an educational drive should be inaugurated in which this problem might be stripped of mystery and sensationalism and the facts of the situation laid bare. The addict should learn that he is chronically poisoned, and, to this extent, ill; he must get over the notion that there is any method of treatment that will return him to the normal with the same magic that his drug of addiction relieves his distress. It is this attitude that often defeats our efforts at treatment and leads to half-hearted coöperation.

From what has been said it is plain that the suggested scheme is not based upon mere theory. I take exception to the statement that drug addicts do not do well at farm colonies. The fault lies with the methods of administration and



treatment, and not with the colony plan. The atmosphere of institutional restraint is unnecessary if not harmful in the majority of these cases and is, at least, not calculated to give us the proper setting for loyal coöperation in re-educational work. This the penologists have long since found out.

The following plan might be adopted with good results:

1. The initiation of an educational drive. This is necessary in order that addicts may learn something of the true nature of their plight and what to expect from treatment. The public, including some physicians, might thus see the problem as it is. Better coöperation on the part of habitués would no doubt be accorded our efforts and an enlightened public and press would know how best to direct their efforts.

2. The inauguration of a war scheme for recruiting addicts for service as briefly outlined is urged.

3. Legislative and other protective measures should be enacted. Addiction is a national public health problem and is so regarded by the federal authorities. Pending federal action states should enact restrictive and protective legislation as far as possible, preparing it in coöperation with neighboring states and modelling it as far as expedient along lines proposed by the federal authorities. The federal authorities should have absolute control of the distribution of narcotics. Physicians qualified to treat addicts should be licensed, much as examiners in lunacy are licensed. Not only would the humane side of the problem be thus taken care of, but, further, the atrocious peddling of drugs by unscrupulous physicians would be stopped. If this is not done, we may soon be asked to legalize and license "Narcotic Parlors," and these may take their place, on an equal footing, alongside the saloons. States should have supervision over sanitariums in which drug addiction is treated. Heroin should be abolished. Should effective restriction of the sale and distribution of narcotics be accomplished, provision should be made for the care of addicted men and women. Hospital facilities for women are particularly desirable for obvious reasons.

The benefits that would result from the institution of these suggested measures would many times offset the relatively small appropriations necessary to carry on the work.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON AGRICULTURE*

BY MISS VIRGINIA C. GILDERSLEEVE, CHAIRMAN

The committee on agriculture was appointed in May, 1917, by the Executive Committee of the Mayor's Committee of Women on National Defense, to centralize the work in agriculture which was being undertaken by various women's organizations in New York City. It resulted from a conference on May 9 called by the Executive Committee, to which were invited certain members of the Mayor's Committee especially interested in this subject, and representatives from the following organizations: National American Woman Suffrage Association, New York State Woman Suffrage Party, National League for Women's Service, Woman's National Farm and Garden Association, International Child Welfare League, Columbia University Committee on Women's War Work, New York State Industrial Commission, International Garden Club, National Special Aid Society, Bronx Volunteer Farm Workers, Girl Scouts, Navy League.

It was the sense of this conference that there was great need of a central clearing house for the work in agriculture in New York City, and a resolution was adopted requesting the chairman of the Mayor's Committee of Women on National Defense to appoint a committee to conduct such a central bureau. . . . The coöperating organizations turned over to the newly appointed committee files containing valuable information about women desiring to do farm work and farms which might be secured for cultivation. The committee organized an office at 6 East 39th Street, and began a preliminary survey of the field. Two types of work seemed especially necessary—the giving of expert advice to individuals and organizations planning food gardens in New York City,

*The work of the Standing Committee on Agriculture of the Mayor's Committee of Women on National Defense, as described in the recent report of Dean Virginia C. Gildersleeve, Chairman of the Committee, has so distinct a bearing on reconstruction and indicates so unequivocally the place which the capacity of women for efficient self-organization will be called upon to fill after the war, that the editors have obtained permission to reprint the report. Miss Gildersleeve is now acting as a member of the Advisory Council of the Woman's Land Army of America.

and the providing of some machinery for placing on farms New York City women willing to undertake agricultural work.

It was so late in the season by the time the committee was organized that very little of value could be done in the way of giving advice to amateur gardeners and community groups. The committee's activity in this field consisted, therefore, of the careful inspection of all the important gardening enterprises within the City of New York and some of the most interesting experiments in highly organized community gardening in nearby towns. The investigation showed that some of the food gardens started in the city were so handicapped by poor soil, lack of intelligent direction and other unfavorable circumstances that they were decidedly not worth the money and effort put into them. For another season the committee on agriculture or some other appropriate body should be organized early enough to advise groups of would-be gardeners whether their plans were sound and the land at their disposal worth cultivating. Much waste might thus be avoided.

The committee found that some of the enterprises were excellent and worthy of imitation. Within the city the garden work organized by the National Plant, Flower and Fruit Guild was especially deserving of mention. The system developed in the City of Yonkers, where there were eighteen hundred community gardens besides the gardens at Fair View Garden School and private gardens, might well be adopted by many cities and towns in the State. The committee recommends that detailed descriptions of a few highly successful enterprises such as the two just mentioned should be printed in convenient leaflets and distributed this winter to guide other groups in their plans for next year.

The most important part of the work of the committee was that of placing women for farm work, in order to remedy in some degree the shortage of agricultural labor. When the committee began its activities in the spring the newspapers had many sensational accounts of so-called "Farmerettes", and it seemed at first sight that much was being done by women farm workers. But when the committee started to investigate it found that the facts were far different. There were, it is true, a few women in New York City desirous of doing agricultural work, but there were apparently no farmers willing to

hire women workers; nor, if they were forced to have them, did they know how they could manage to house and care for this sort of helpers. The committee then sought and found a plan to meet the situation and experimented with it last summer, with the idea of trying to get it widely adopted next year should it prove successful.

To begin with, the committee discovered that there was no employment bureau in New York to handle women farm workers. With the advice of the Federation of Non-Commercial Employment Bureaus and under the direction of the Employment Bureau of the New York State Industrial Commission, the Mayor's Committee of Women on National Defense opened an office to conduct this sort of placement work for New York City. On getting into communication with the County Farm Bureau Agents up the state the committee found that many farmers were seeking women, but all wanted them to do housework, not outside work. The burden of feeding extra farm laborers naturally made domestic help for the farmer's wife an imperative need. On the other hand, of all the women who came to the committee's office to register, not a single one could be persuaded to do housework in a farmer's family. This seemed to be a hopeless deadlock; but two experiments begun early in the season pointed the way to a possible solution of the difficulty. This is the so-called "unit plan for agricultural workers."

The essence of the unit plan is that the women workers live in a community, under a captain or supervisor, with a system of coöperative housekeeping, and go out from this centre in squads to work on neighboring farms or estates. This relieves the farmer's wife of the burden of feeding the extra laborers; and, though you cannot persuade women to go and help cook in the farmer's kitchen, you *can* secure women who will go as a "dietitian" or cook with one of these units, to be a member of the community in full and important standing, in charge of catering and cooking. Moreover, the social life of such a group is pleasant enough to attract and hold women who could not endure isolated existence in farmers' families, and the unit can provide all necessary protection for its members.

The members of a unit may live in a house, unused and loaned for the purpose, a barn temporarily fitted up for camping, a school-house, or tents. The residence and the larger pieces of equipment, such as cots, cook stove, and cooking utensils, should be supplied by the farmer desiring the workers, if the entire unit is to work on one farm, or by a group of interested residents of the neighborhood if the unit is to work on various places. The women may bring their own bedding, towels, table utensils, etc.

The catering and cooking should be done by one or more dietitians or cooks, members of the unit or women hired for the purpose. In small units it is sometimes practicable for the supervisor to undertake this duty. Dishwashing and other kinds of housework may be shared by the members of the unit. The problem of planning a proper diet and securing the necessary supplies is a rather serious one, which the organization sending out the unit should help to solve. The Mayor's Committee, as the season progressed, planned a model ration, and advanced the units money enough to purchase the first week's supplies.

In a large unit, when the workers go out to distant farms, the problem of transportation becomes a serious one. The women may be carried in motor cars or other vehicles owned by the unit or loaned by neighbors or employers. If the distance to a farm is unusually great, the employer should be charged for transportation. Obviously this is possible only to a limited extent, and no single unit should attempt to cover too wide a territory.

Wages may be arranged in at least two practicable ways. The units may pay each member a regular weekly wage and board and receive from their employer all money earned by the workers. Or the workers may themselves receive from their employers the pay per day or by piece-work and share the expenses of the household. The latter plan has been the one followed in the great majority of our units. The workers have been able to pay back the money advanced by the committee to cover their expenses and to take home with them a small balance. Another season employers should be urged to provide some profitable occupation for rainy days, so that wages may not cease during a spell of bad weather.

A supervisor should be in charge of each unit. She may be one of the workers, more mature than the others and fitted for leadership, or some volunteer experienced in managing young women. The size of the unit naturally affects the arrangement for supervision. If the group is small very little machinery is necessary. On the tact, the good temper, the knowledge of human nature and the executive ability of the supervisor, the success of the unit largely depends.

Careful bookkeeping is necessary in order that the wages and expense accounts may be properly managed. In small units this may be done by the supervisor, or some interested volunteer from the neighborhood may undertake it.

The physical condition of the workers is very important. No woman should be enrolled in a unit unless she has been examined by a physician and pronounced physically fit. The committee has endeavored to see that this rule was followed in all the units with which it has been concerned. The committee also feels that women with only two weeks vacation should not be allowed to devote their holiday to agricultural work. This brief time is needed by them for relaxation from the strain of their regular employment, and it is too short to enable them to get in good training for farm labor.

Eleven units, variations of the type described above, ranging in numbers from six to seventy-three, were actually in operation last season, in touch with the committee. Several specific examples may be of interest.

As a typical small unit, one may describe a berry-picking unit which lived and worked for a period of five weeks on a fruit farm near Milton, New York. Six workers began and finished together—chiefly teachers and art students. A few other women were with them temporarily. They were paid by piece-work. Of the six permanent members the highest individual earnings for the five weeks were \$43.80, the lowest \$25.60, and the average \$31.07. Each woman's expenses averaged \$3.09 weekly. This included 50 cents which each member of the unit paid to the housekeeper, leaving the actual cost of the food \$2.59 a week, or 37 cents a day for each person. The cost of board for the five weeks was thus \$15.45 per person. To this should be added \$1.50 for travelling expenses to and from New York City. The average balance per

person remaining when these expenses are subtracted from the average earnings for the five weeks is \$14.12.

Every member of the unit left the farm in the best of health, with increased weight in spite of hard work and exceptionally hot weather. The farmer was evidently satisfied with the women as workers, for he plans to have two units next season and has already re-engaged this one.

The largest and most interesting of the units in the field last season was the so-called Mt. Kisco Unit, which was really not a typical unit but rather an agricultural training camp and experiment station. Its official title was the "Women's Agricultural Camp". From its nearness to Bedford it was occasionally known also as the Bedford Unit. It was established through the energy and ability of a public-spirited citizen of Westchester County, Mrs. Charles W. Short, Jr., who secured the loan of an old, unoccupied farmhouse, raised some capital to back the enterprise, and sought women to join the "camp." A number of working girls who were graduates of the Manhattan Trade School were enlisted, a large group of Barnard College students and alumnae, three students from the department of household arts at Teachers College to serve as dietitians, an agricultural expert to coach the girls, and Professor Ida H. Ogilvie, of the department of geology in Barnard College, who volunteered to act as dean of the camp. A bookkeeper and several chauffeurs also came from Barnard, and some members joined the group from other colleges and, through the Mayor's Committee, from circles outside college. At its largest, the Mt. Kisco Unit included seventy-three women.

The workers were paid by the unit a cash wage and their board. The Trade School girls received \$6 a week; the college girls \$15 a month. This difference in payment soon proved undesirable and the new workers were all taken on the \$15 a month basis. The unit was paid by the farmers who hired the girls, at the rate of 25 cents an hour for each worker, or \$2 for an eight-hour day.

Before being enlisted the girls were examined by a physician, to ensure their being in good health. After their arrival at the camp they generally worked for a week or two in the "home garden" under the direction of the agricultural expert.

When they were in good training from this, they were sent out in squads to work on the farms or estates in the vicinity. A Ford motor-bus, and sometimes other cars loaned for the purpose, distributed them to their daily tasks and collected them when the day was over.

The young women lived in the spacious old farm house and in tents pitched nearby. Cots, shower-baths, and other pieces of simple equipment were provided by the founders of the camp. The girls wore a simple uniform of blue jean overalls and blue shirtwaist. The dietitians gave them very satisfactory food at an average cost to the camp of 48 cents a day per resident.

At first the farmers in the neighborhood looked with extreme scepticism upon the women's enterprise. But some of the owners of nearby estates gave the girls a trial and found that they "made good". Soon the demand was much greater than the Unit could supply. The camp opened too late for ploughing to be attempted, but practically all other forms of agricultural work were done—planting, weeding, transplanting, thinning of fruit, hoeing of corn and potatoes, haying in all its branches and the harvesting of rye, corn, peaches and apples. According to the report of the dean of the camp, the girls were successful in all kinds of work, "the unanimous verdict of the farmers being that while less strong than men they more than made up for this by superior conscientiousness and quickness".

The great majority of the women enjoyed the work thoroughly. They were a healthy, happy community. The college girls proved especially well able to stand the physical strain of hard labor, and their zeal and enthusiasm were exceedingly valuable in developing a good spirit in the camp.

The Mt. Kisco Unit therefore demonstrated most successfully what its founders set out to prove—that women with little or no technical training could perform satisfactorily most kinds of farm labor and help remedy the shortage caused by the withdrawal of men from agricultural work. Financially, as appears from the dean's report, the camp was not, last season, a paying enterprise. The cost of equipment and transportation were chiefly responsible for the deficit, which was met out of the fund raised to start the enterprise. It is quite

possible that next year the camp may be so conducted that its receipts will cover all its expenses.

Of the other nine units organized last summer eight were in the fruit-growing district, engaged chiefly in picking berries and other fruits, and one was performing various sorts of farm work. On the whole the units were economically successful for the workers and for the employers. The latter reported that most of the women were satisfactory. In certain types of labor they could not accomplish in a day as much as a man, but they made up for their comparative lack of physical strength by being very steady and dependable. In such work as sorting and packing fruit they were often more efficient than men. In almost all kinds of work they were apparently far more reliable and efficient than boys.

What types of women were in the units? This question is often asked. There were very many sorts, from college graduates to factory workers, skilled and unskilled. A group of trades-union girls, from the "seasonal trades", organized into a self-governing unit, was one of the most successful. The women were attracted to the committee's office by the effective publicity secured by the publicity committee, occasionally by paid advertisements, and through coöperating organizations and institutions.

The committee believes that another season many useful farm workers can be secured from the groups of women having long summer vacations, such as college students and school teachers, and those in seasonal trades or business with "slack seasons" in the summer months. The last class is especially promising. If numerous groups of working girls from the seasonal trades, thrown out of their regular employment for several months in the summer, could be shifted to the country for work on farms, they would be better off than if left unemployed in New York, and might profit greatly in physical health as well as economically. The committee recommends that as early as February, 1918, a campaign be begun to advertise farm work in the colleges, among school teachers and in factories, business houses and department stores, so that groups of women looking forward to a "slack season" in their work may organize themselves into congenial units for agricultural labor.

Besides finding women to join the units, the committee of course had to find farmers willing to employ women laborers. At first this was difficult. But with the coöperation of the publicity committee and especially through the efficient work of a volunteer agent who went personally among the farmers of Dutchess County, a few employers were induced to make the experiment. Very soon the success of the first units sent out caused other farmers in the neighborhood to desire women workers, and by the end of July the demand was greater than the committee could satisfy. In order that the plan may be carried out on a much larger scale next summer, a great deal of active publicity work should be begun at once through the rural papers, the Granges, and all other possible channels.

The shortage of men farm laborers will probably be far more acute in the summer of 1918 than it was in 1917. It is therefore highly desirable that every effort should be made to enlist suitable women in this work. The experiments of the committee have demonstrated that the unit plan is a feasible method of attaining this end, and that women thus organized can perform most kinds of farm labor with satisfaction and profit to themselves and to their employers. But the committee has also found that no attempt should be made to enlist women in this way unless thoroughly adequate machinery is provided for investigating the places where the women are to be sent, seeing that proper housing and equipment are given them, examining the women carefully to eliminate the physically unfit, organizing the units with proper supervisors, keeping in touch with them after they are in the field, and interesting local communities in their welfare. In many parts of the country this work may properly be undertaken by private and voluntary organizations in an experimental way, as it was by the Mayor's Committee during the summer of 1917. But to extend the work on the scale necessary in the State of New York in 1918 is a task too large to be undertaken by any but a governmental agency. The New York State Industrial Commission, with its employment bureaus, in coöperation with which the committee has worked, is the most suitable agency to assume this important task. The committee earnestly recommends that a sufficient staff of women officers be added

to the Commission to ensure the proper organization of units of women farm workers in this state during the coming season.

The committee also recommends the organization of a central committee on agriculture to act as a clearing house in New York City, to coöperate with the State Industrial Commission by securing publicity and performing other useful services in New York City, and to serve as a bureau of information on agricultural subjects of interest to women's organizations.

BISHOP BRENT'S MISSION TO THE MOROS

During the past year most gratifying results have been secured and the entire undertaking is now on a firm foundation notwithstanding the handicaps incident to the Great War. And here it is well to mention that the Moros were among the very first to respond to the call for volunteers at the outbreak of the war in this country. Through Datu Piang, their representative from Cotabato in the Philippine legislature, the Moros offered to raise an army to fight for the United States.

Bishop Brent paid his last visit to the Philippines in the spring of 1917. In July he received an urgent cable calling him to France. In a recent report on the Moro Mission, he says:

"There are circumstances in which a certain divine compulsion throws us against a problem, so that if we are nothing more than ordinarily responsive to duty we must tackle it. Consequently, America, untutored in such matters as she was, was compelled to grapple with the Moro situation when Spain, with a secret sigh of relief relinquished her fractious wards into our hands. Our government blundered along for a while and reached nowhere, sometimes acting as though she thought the only good Moro, was a dead Moro and sometimes erring on the side of unguarded friendliness and trust. By degrees we have settled down to an intelligent and consistent policy. I consider the work of Governor Frank W. Carpenter, which I know intimately and in detail, to be on a par with the administration of noted Oriental administrators like Sir Stamford Raffles, Ralph Brooke and Sir Frank Swettenham.

"Governor Carpenter is using the material he has with consummate skill, and if the outcome fails in success it will be due to the inadequacy of the native personnel at his disposal and not to any lack of wisdom on his part. The Moro is now at any rate not in open revolt, and in some places he is more content, or less restive, under foreign rule than at any period of his history. Constructive agencies are at work for his elevation and wholesome stimulus is goading him to a larger degree of self effort and self respect. There is an increasing influx of Filipino settlers into the Moro country which is of vital importance in the process of reconciliation and assimilation into the prevailing civilization of the Islands.

"Our Hospital in Zamboanga is not in the most strategic place possible. But at the time it was built it seemed the only place available. We had hopes of establishing ourselves in Jolo but funds were not forthcoming and as the government has for sometime been operating a good hospital there we can rest content.

"At last the Hospital Ship is in commission. Under an experienced doctor and nurse it began its beneficent career at the very time I left Manila. The Moro Agricultural School has had a brief but signally successful career. We have already reached a point where we are able to select the more desirable from an increasing list of applicants for admission. There is a daily steady flow of people of every class to the school for interviews with the Principal.

"So far as we can see we have the confidence and respect of the entire population. Moros have begun to settle in our near proximity as insuring protection to themselves and their property. Within the school itself books and tools and agriculture and games make up the day of as bright and happy a lot of school boys as you can find on the Islands.

"We have gone far enough to know that we ought to go further.

"Whether or not we can do so depends on the American public.

"The major part of the Moro work has been my personal responsibility in which the Board of Missions has no share except kindly interest. It is profitable for America as well as for our Moro and pagan wards that this work well begun should be made permanent. We are under the sway of no delusions. Whatever progress we make, it will be slow and results capable of tabulation will be elusive.

"What Parkman says of the North American Indian is true of Igorot and Moro. 'The mind of the savage is by no means that beautiful blank which some have represented it; there is much to be erased as well as to be written.' We have not yet passed the erasing age. There is this to encourage. Our problem has fixed limits and is not like China 'a field of labor whose vastness might tire the wings of thought itself.'

"No love or labor or treasure that has been dedicated to the enterprise has been lost. God has accepted and used and blessed it all. Nor has our aim ever been to gain sectarian advantage but on the contrary to bring men to the knowledge of God. If on our initiative others have been roused to effort in the same field, it is more a cause for thankfulness than for jealousy however much we may deplore the spirit of unfriendly rivalry where it has appeared. In all our undertakings, we have tried not to lose sight of the universal in

our devotion to the local and have sought to find great opportunities in small occasions."

Space forbids all but brief extracts from the report of Associate Superintendent, Mr. A. D. Riley, of the agricultural school just received by Mrs. C. Lorillard Spencer of the Moro Executive Committee.

The Moro Agricultural School was formally opened in 1916 by Bishop Brent and Mrs. C. Lorillard Spencer in the presence of the government officials of the Department of Mindanao and Sulu, prominent Moros from Jolo, and natives from all parts of the Island of Sulu, especially from the neighborhood of Indanan, where the school is situated. At the time of the inauguration, however, some of the buildings were not completed and it was not yet known just what equipment would be needed to carry on the work of the school. Consequently pupils were not admitted until a few months later when it was deemed advisable to admit those who desired to enter at that time. Classes were begun during the month of April.

The first enrollment included twenty-two Moro boys ranging from seven to nineteen years of age, coming from all parts of the island and from all classes of society. These pupils were organized into Grades I, II, and III for their academic work, and assigned to work on the school farm according to their strength and ability. By the end of the school year, forty-five pupils had been enrolled, thirty of whom remained to take their final examinations. Boys who fled at the suggestion of any form of physical exertion at the beginning of the first school year desired to remain and work for pay during the long vacation through the hot season. Boys who could not be depended upon to feed the chickens have since been put in charge of squads of boys on certain details of work for a month at a time. Thin, listless individuals who once tossed pennies in the market place have actually become stout, robust boys, who find a great deal of amusement in athletics, and who have discovered something besides pictures between the covers of their books.

The parents of these boys often come to visit the school and in this way it has had, we hope, a great deal of effect upon the community. They see the fields that have been cultivat-

ed, and the crops that have been produced, and many of them have taken away the seeds of fruit and vegetables, and a great many bushels of seed-corn. If it is sometimes discouraging when they come, for no apparent reason whatsoever, to take their boys out of school, it is just as encouraging to see the boys come back, as they usually do.

The attitude of the community is friendly toward the school. The people around Indanan have shown only a friendly curiosity regarding the teachers and the school, and the prominent Moros in Jolo have taken a kindly interest in the work here.

For a group of Moro boys who have never been taught to repress a desire or check an impulse, the discipline of the school has been remarkably good. During the first few months the chief trouble-makers were eliminated. (At first the boys were so suspicious of each other and of their surroundings that they locked themselves in the dormitory shortly after dusk and repaired to their beds as to a "castle". The morning inspection would usually result in the confiscation of barongs, bolos, or other weapons of attack and defense hidden among their pillows or under their beds. On one morning in particular five dogs were tied to the foot of each of five adjoining beds. Naturally they didn't have to be "discovered". Quarrels frequently occurred and the fights that sometimes ensued would result in a use for which the garden tools were not intended. As the boys became better acquainted, however, these displays of savagery disappeared and it was not long until an order had to be issued requiring all boys to be in the dormitory at nine o'clock in the evening and "outsiders", who chose to try to bully any of the smaller boys, usually found they had stirred up a hornets' nest.) Many of the boys preferred to remain during the vacation months of April and May, and at the beginning of their second year of school, all seemed pretty glad to get back to their books and games.

"Since the inauguration of the school, the old dispensary, which was found to be inadequate, has been torn down and a new building erected in its stead. This building is a small cottage or bungalow, 18 by 20 feet with a six foot wide veranda running around the entire structure. Here many of the natives come to get treatment between the hours of one and

four in the afternoon, and the veranda affords a good place for them to 'talk.'

"Across the road from the dispensary a concrete drinking fountain and bath-house has been erected, and the groups that frequent it from morning until night show that it answers a most immediate need of the people and is being appreciated. The number of 'Dhobie' itch cases brought daily to the dispensary has noticeably decreased.

"There are at present, four permanent buildings on the school grounds; the School Building, (used also as a dormitory), the Bodega the Dispensary Building and the Residence. There are also several bamboo, nipa-roofed structures; the blacksmith shop, the carpenter shop, the cattle-shed and laborers' quarters, and two wagon sheds.

"The equipment at present consists of school books and supplies, (only enough for the present enrollment), and a limited amount of blacksmithing, carpentry, farm and gardening tools, implements, and work animals.

"About two thirds of the school farm of seventeen and one half hectares is now under cultivation, the remainder being used as pasture land for the work animals and play ground for the boys.

"The continued rains at Indanan, which have averaged twelve inches per month for nearly two years have retarded and destroyed most of the grain crops, although enough corn has been harvested to feed the animals and supply the Indanan market. Papayas and garden truck are being sent in small quantities to the Jolo market.

"Since the opening of the school from five to ten regular laborers have been employed to do the farm and other work, such as construction of buildings, and the hauling of materials and supplies. More than five hundred pesos (\$250) have been realized from the rental of labor and animals on the public highways. While the pupils of the school are assigned to tasks that they are able to perform, yet immature boys, who spend most of their time in the classrooms cannot perform nearly all of the work to be accomplished even on a school farm, nor can their labor be expected ever to repay for their clothes, rations, and other necessities. This fact has been repeatedly demonstrated on other farm schools of the Philippine Islands.

"The program for academic work must comply with the requirements of the government in the Bureau of Education schools in order that the Moro Agricultural School might be recognized. This compliance was, moreover, found to be a wise policy because the school text-books now being published for the Philippine Islands are adapted to meet those require-

ments. As a result the boys have a great deal more to do than the boys who attend the regular primary schools in other parts of the islands.

"During the months of April and May 1917, at the time of the long vacation, a summer session was held for those pupils who had failed in some of their work, because of their late enrollment or for some other reasonable excuse. Classes were held from three-thirty until five-thirty in the afternoon, and from seven-thirty until nine o'clock at night. Only one failed to pass the makeup examination in June 1917.

"The faculty of the Moro Agricultural School, at the present time consists of the Superintendent, Mr. J. R. Fugate, the Associate Superintendent, Mr. A. D. Riley, and two Filipino teachers, Gerenimo Ancheta and Ramon Tompong. Mr. Ancheta is in charge of the boys' individual gardens and Mr. Tompong of the carpentry and industrial work.

"At the beginning of the school year the boys had made their own beds and lockers for the dormitory, and benches and desks for the school-room. They have since made several benches, davenport, tables, and various other useful articles of furniture.

"For several months past some of the boys have been selling vegetables in small quantities from their gardens to the Indanan market, and they have sent three shipments of vegetables to the Jolo market, distance from Jolo and lack of transportation forbidding the sending of more.

"It will be seen from the foregoing that at the present time this is distinctly a Primary School, but with the promotion of the present Fourth Grade boys into the Fifth Grade next year, it will become an Intermediate School as well, ('Intermediate' being fifth, sixth and seventh grades in the Philippines). This will mean not only an increase in the number of classes but also in the size of the program. While it had been the hope of the faculty here gradually to eliminate the Primary department, beginning with the fifth grade as soon as the fifth grade was started, this has been found to be impracticable for the reason that very few boys who enter here have ever had any schooling of any sort before, and to cut off the first grade would be to cut off the source of supply.

"This increase will require greater dormitory, mess hall and class-room space, and more equipment than the school can provide for at the present time. The boys are now living in one end of the single school buildings on the grounds, and messing in the other while the dispensary is being used for the over-flow. A separate dormitory building is badly needed.

"Owing to the great amount of rainfall at Indanan, outdoor athletics have become such an uncertainty that it is hoped that a play-shed of some sort can be erected in order that athletics can be carried on, during the rainy days, inside of this gymnasium."

The Hospital Ship referred to by Bishop Brent in his report, is named "Busuanga." It was formerly a large government coast guard cutter. When Bishop Brent and his co-workers founded their very successful Moro hospital at Zamboanga they worked out the Hospital Ship plan to meet the conditions in Moro Land where there are numerous islands comparatively easy of access. So the Government's coöperation was secured by Governor Carpenter and the coast guard cutter was put at the disposal of the work. The ship was entirely refitted for hospital purposes and equipped with powerful engines. The Rockefeller Foundation and the Government coöperated in the expense of putting the new Hospital Ship in commission and the Rockefeller Foundation has pledged the maintenance expense for five years. The following extracts of the inauguration of this interesting innovation in social service and missionary endeavor is taken from a paper published in Zamboanga:

"The surgeon in charge is Dr. A. Francis Coutant, a graduate of the Cornell Medical School, and the head nurse is Miss Teresa McKimmey, formerly of the Army Nurse Corps. Both were sent to the Philippines especially for this duty. Miss Espanol, a graduate nurse from the Philippines General Hospital, is also on the staff as well as male nurses.

"The afternoon of the arrival of the 'Busuanga' in Zamboanga an informal reception was held on board to give the people an opportunity to look over the vessel. The hospital arrangements are complete in every particular. The dispensary contains all the necessary medical supplies and the operating room is fitted with all the modern surgical appliances. The main ward contains eight beds but there is ample room on the decks for many more.

"The 'Busuanga' will cruise among the Sulu Islands and up and down the coast of Mindanao and the medical staff will treat the sick and relieve the sufferings of thousands of people at hundreds of isolated barrios where a doctor was never seen. People everywhere will be vaccinated. The more serious cases will be taken to the hospitals at Jolo and Zamboanga. The people of this Department are indeed fortunate."

The Moro work is under the auspices of a National Committee in whose membership are many noted men and women throughout the United States. The members of the executive committee, of which Mr. George Wharton Pepper is chairman, are Mrs. C. Lorillard Spencer, Mrs. Nathaniel Bowditch Potter, Mr. John T. Pratt and Mr. Gano Dunn. The treasurer is Major Willard Straight, 120 Broadway, New York City.

REPORTS OF MEETINGS

ANNUAL SPRING MEETING

The Spring Meeting of the Institute was held at Hosack Hall, Academy of Medicine, New York City, May 11, 1917 at eight p. m., with President IRVING FISHER, presiding.

The subject of the meeting was National Prohibition as a War Measure. Speakers on both sides were heard.

Pro Dr. Haven Emerson
Prof. Chas. B. Davenport
Rev. Charles Stelzle
Dr. E. Carleton McDowell

Con Julius Liebmann, Esq.
Rev. Wallace M. Short
Hon. Jacob E. Meeker
Henry J. Kaltenbach, Esq.

The following resolution was presented:

WHEREAS, the use of alcoholic liquors is generally recognized as an important factor in the spread of venereal diseases in the Army and Navy; and

WHEREAS, these diseases are the most serious and disabling ones to which soldiers and sailors are liable; and

WHEREAS, the commanding officers of our Army and Navy have concluded that the use of alcohol impairs the efficiency of their respective services; and

WHEREAS, the use of alcohol seriously impairs industrial efficiency in factories and on the farms, without the products of which national defense is impossible; and

WHEREAS, there now exists an alarming shortage in our food reserves at a time when we must supply not only our own needs, but also assist in supplying those of the Allies; and

WHEREAS, enormous quantities of food materials are now diverted to the manufacture of alcohol in beverages; therefore, be it

RESOLVED, that the National Institute of Social Sciences urge the President and Congress to suppress the manufacture, importation and sale of intoxicating liquors for the duration of the war and for at least one year thereafter.

Since the number of Institute members present was inadequate to constitute a representative vote, a mail ballot was cast with the following result:

Out of 530 replies, 408 were unconditionally in favor of prohibition with 73 positively in the negative, 23 others voted in the affirmative on certain conditions, and 12 favored some step less drastic than absolute prohibition. Absence from the country prevented a vote on the part of 8 members, 3 others were hindered from voting by their scruples, 2 withheld their votes, and 1 opposed action by the National Institute of Social Sciences.

A copy of the resolution with the result of the vote was transmitted to Washington to the President of the United States, department heads and senators.

ANNUAL MEETING

The Fifth Annual Meeting of the Institute was held at Hotel Astor, New York City, January 18, 1918 at two-thirty p. m., with President IRVING FISHER, presiding.

EXECUTIVE SESSION

The Honorary Secretary, Dr. H. Holbrook Curtis, read the minutes of the two meetings held in 1917.

In the absence of Henry P. Davison, Treasurer, the Honorary Secretary read the Treasurer's report, showing a balance of \$4,449.22.

The chairman of the Nominating Committee reported on the election of officers.

The incoming president was authorized to appoint an Executive Committee, a Medal Committee, an Editorial Board and an Executive Secretary.

The following resolutions were adopted:

I. WHEREAS, it has been suggested that the National Institute of Social Sciences should be affiliated with the American Academy of Political and Social Science of Philadelphia; now therefore be it

RESOLVED, that the President of the National Institute of Social Sciences be, and he hereby is, authorized and requested to appoint a committee of three including the President of the Institute to inquire into the advisability and methods of the proposed affiliation or consolidation between the National Institute of Social Sciences and the American Academy of Political and Social Science of Philadelphia and to report their recommendations to the Council.

2. In view of the fact that, except in the Army and Navy, no provision has been made by any competent authority for the recognition by a medal or other suitable insignia, of notable humanitarian or patriotic services for the national welfare:

Therefore, the Executive Committee of the American Social Science Association, one of the oldest of nationally incorporated bodies, recommends that a medal to be designated "Liberty Service Medal" be authorized.

The Committee further recommends that the National Institute of Social Sciences be empowered, in accordance with the objects of its organization, to award and bestow said medal upon such person or persons as have rendered or may render notable services which merit such special mark of distinction and recognition.

(Signed)

OSCAR S. STRAUS, Chairman
GEORGE GORDON BATTLE
SIMEON E. BALDWIN
H. HOLBROOK CURTIS
RIPLEY HITCHCOCK

3. That the President of the United States be urged to institute adequate measures for the conservation of the health and the promotion of the physical efficiency of the nation during the period of the war.

4. That the sincere thanks of the members of the National Institute of Social Sciences, be and they hereby are, tendered to the President, Vice-Presidents, Secretaries and Treasurer, constituting the Council, for the manner in which they have managed the affairs of the Institute and for the generous devotion of their time, resulting in the high standing and efficiency for accomplishment of the ends for which the Institute was organized.

The following resolution was referred for consideration to a special committee to be appointed by the President of the Institute:

WHEREAS, regarding the foreign born and persons of foreign parentage, the United States census has hitherto been based on country of origin; and

WHEREAS, language and race lines are by no means coterminous with political boundaries, so that in many cases the present method of enumerating the foreign born and those of foreign parentage gives no clue to the real facts about the composition of these elements of our population; and

WHEREAS, if the census is hereafter taken only on the present basis, the future changes of political boundaries will decrease the possibility of accurate comparison of our foreign born and foreign parentage population as recorded in different censuses; and

WHEREAS, the census as prepared in the past does not give data as to the age, sex, marital condition, illiteracy, and school attendance of the native born of native parentage, and the various race-by-birth and race-by-parentage groups; and

WHEREAS, the scientific understanding of the race-composition of America and also intelligent Americanizing work will be greatly aided by an amplification of the census;

The National Institute of Social Sciences hereby resolves that we ask: that in the census of 1920 and thereafter, the enumeration of foreign born and those of foreign-born parentage be made not only by country of origin, but also by language and race of origin, including the Hebrews as a race, and that the statistics for age, sex, marital condition, illiteracy, and school attendance be gathered by race and race-parentage; and it is hereby further

RESOLVED, that such further information as is feasible, be collected as to birthplace, race, religion, etc., of grandparents.

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL LIBERTY MEDAL COMMITTEE

The National Liberty Medal Committee is composed of the members of the American Social Science Association, who drafted the resolution creating the Liberty Service Medal, and those appointed by the President of the National Institute of Social Sciences to coöperate with them.

The resolution, which was adopted at the annual meeting, held January 18, 1918, at the Hotel Astor, reads as follows:

In view of the fact that, except in the army and navy, no provision has been made by any competent authority for the recognition by a medal or other suitable insignia for notable humanitarian or patriotic services for the national welfare:

Therefore, the executive committee of the American Social Science Association, one of the oldest of nationally incorporated bodies, recommends that a medal to be designated "Liberty Service" medal be authorized.

The committee further recommends that the National Institute of Social Sciences be empowered, in accordance with the object of its organization, to award and bestow said medal upon such person or persons as have rendered or may render notable services which merit such special mark of distinction and recognition.

OSCAR S. STRAUS, Chairman
GEORGE GORDON BATTLE
SIMEON E. BALDWIN
H. HOLBROOK CURTIS
RIPLEY HITCHCOCK

Three meetings have been held at the office of the Institute. At the first meeting, February 18, 1918, a Liberty Service Medal was voted to Major Grayson M. P. Murphy in recognition of his undefatigable work and rare constructive ability in organizing the Red Cross in France, thus benefitting not only our country, but also our Allies.

At the second meeting, March 28, 1918, Miss M. Adeline Nutting was voted a Liberty Service Medal for raising the

standard of women going into the field of nursing and increasing the number of trained nurses, thereby adding greatly to our national efficiency in a time of need.

The Governor of Connecticut, Honorable Marcus H. Holcomb, was proposed by the Connecticut Committee with a letter received from Judge Simeon E. Baldwin. Arthur R. Kimball and Judge John K. Beach endorsed him as the person in the State of Connecticut most deserving of a Liberty Medal. This medal was then voted in appreciation of great patriotic services rendered since the outbreak of the war, in the rapid transportation of ammunition and other military supplies.

At the third meeting, April 30, 1918, a medal was voted to John R. Mott, who as general secretary of the International Y. M. C. A. and also of the War Work Council of the Y. M. C. A. has performed great service in providing means for upholding the morale of our troops, and whose other provisions have added enormously to the comfort and well being of the allied forces.

The following resolutions were adopted:

State Committees shall be formed by asking members of the Institute to suggest ten names, preferably of members of the National Institute of Social Sciences of which five shall be appointed to serve on these committees by the President of the Institute.

State Committees shall nominate to the National Committee those persons who by humanitarian and patriotic service, in their opinion, are entitled to receive the Liberty Service Medal, or recognition by the Institute in accordance with the constitution of that body.

The National Committee will act only upon the name of those who have been proposed in writing to the secretary of the medal committee two weeks before a regular monthly meeting. The nomination is to be accompanied by a full statement of the services which entitle the nominee to recognition.

LILLIE HAMILTON FRENCH,

Secretary Liberty Medal Committee.

ACTIVITIES OF MEMBERS

NATIONAL SERVICE—ABROAD

Colonel George E. Armstrong is serving with the Canadian Army Medical Corps as consulting surgeon to the Canadian hospitals in England, and has his headquarters in London.

As Ensign in the United States Navy, Mr. Vincent Astor has been abroad in active service since June, 1917.

Dr. Bertram M. Bernheim, commissioned as Captain, M.R.S., U. S. Army, is still in active foreign service as a surgeon in the Base Hospital Unit for the Johns Hopkins Hospital. In January, 1918, his new book, "Hæmorrhage, Transfusion and the Anæmias" was published by J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia.

The report of the Health Commissioner of the State of New York, Dr. Herman M. Biggs, based on an inquiry into the spread of tuberculosis in France since the outbreak of the war, has led both the Rockefeller Foundation for which the investigation was made, and the American Red Cross, to send a joint commission to France for the purpose of instituting, by means of scientific prevention, an anti-tuberculosis campaign. With him are associated three other members of the Institute, experts in their own fields: Dr. Livingston Farrand, Mr. Homer Folks, and Professor Selskar M. Gunn.

Dr. Vilray P. Blair was, in July, 1917, assigned to the Division of Surgery of the Head, in the Surgeon General's office at Washington, his special work being the organization of a staff for the treatment of face and jaw injuries. Although much valuable work in restoring men disfigured by face and jaw injuries is now being done abroad, this work has been handicapped by the fact that many patients reach the special-

ized centers too late for initiative treatment. Dr. Blair's work has been to prepare and to furnish both the men and a special equipment for initiating at advanced stations the ideal treatment of facial injuries, thereby simplifying their care when the base hospitals are reached.

Dr. George E. Brewer went to France May 15, 1917, as head of the Presbyterian Hospital Unit, Base Hospital No. 2, and has been serving with the British forces at General Hospital No. 1 with the rank of Major. He has now been detached from his hospital unit and made consulting surgeon to the American Expeditionary Forces.

Dr. Hugh Cabot is at General Hospital No. 22 with the British Expeditionary Forces in France.

Major Ernest K. Coulter, originator of the Big Brother Movement, is now acting as Quartermaster, U. S. R., with the American Expeditionary Forces in France.

At last accounts Dr. Haven Emerson, ex-Commissioner of Health, New York City, was doing epidemiological work in France.

Mr. Homer Folks, Director of the Department of Civil Affairs of the American Red Cross in France, has been entrusted with the organization of one of the most important phases of reconstruction work planned by the American Red Cross in France. The sum of one million dollars has been appropriated for the establishment of a model health centre in some one city of France, where a three years' object lesson in all kinds of health work will be conducted. As director of his department, Mr. Folks has organized the work under ten bureaus, headed by experts, with a steadily increasing staff, which at the time of the last report numbered 278 members. The scope and nature of the work of these bureaus is indicated by their titles: Reconstruction, Tuberculosis, Relief and Economic Rehabilitation of the Blind, Children's Bureau, Refugees and Home Relief in Paris, Re-education of Mutilés, Refugees outside Paris, "Repatries," Friends Unit and Editorial.

At the urgent request of the American Red Cross, Mr. Folks was granted a year's leave of absence by the State Charities Aid Association to continue his work in France.

Dr. Alexander Lambert has gone to France in charge of the medical work of the Red Cross with the rank of Major in the United States Army.

Dr. Stuart McGuire, commissioned as Major in the Medical Reserve Corps of the Army, was early in the year appointed director of Base Hospital No. 45 for service abroad.

Dr. Robert B. Osgood, Major in the Medical Reserve Corps of the United States Army, left for France in May, 1917, to serve as Orthopedic Surgeon in Base Hospital No. 5, commonly known as the Harvard Unit.

In the early autumn he was transferred from that position and made Assistant Director of Military Orthopedics for the American Expeditionary Forces. An account of his work is given in the February issue of the *American Journal of Orthopedic Surgery*, under the title of "The Orthopedic Centers of Great Britain and Their American Medical Officers."

Dr. Norval Pierce, as Captain M. R. C., U. S. Army, was in June, 1917, placed in charge of the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary Unit for Physical Examination of Aviators. In August, 1917, he received his commission as Major, and was ordered to Base Hospital, Camp Grant, as Chief Consulting Oto-laryngologist.

Professor Albert Sauveur, metallurgical engineer, is in the service of the United States Government in Paris.

Cabot Ward, while an officer of the Veteran Corps of Artillery, was sent to France to investigate and report on the armaments, systems of defense, anti-aircraft defenses and other matters in connection with the protection of the cities of France and England, especially of Paris and London. Early in November, 1917, when about to return to the United States with the other members of the commission, he was made

Major in the Aviation Section, Signal Corps, U. S. Army. He therefore cabled his resignation as President of the Park Board of New York City, and assumed his new duties in the Production Division of the Signal Corps with headquarters in Paris.

Major Ward has again been promoted, and is now Chief of the Intelligence Section, Lines of Communication.

NATIONAL SERVICE—AT HOME

Mrs. George C. Avery has, since 1898, been president of the Woman's Emergency Association of Louisville, Ky., an organization with a membership of nearly 10,000 women, including fifty-two organizations acting only in national, state, or local emergencies. Mrs. Avery was head of the Woman's Committee for the first Liberty Loan, Louisville, and assisted last spring in the organization of a Woman's Auxiliary Regiment to provide necessary comforts for the First Kentucky Regiment. She is chairman for Jefferson County, Ky., including Louisville, and chairman of the Woman's Committee Council of National Defense. Mrs. Avery has given much time to allied relief, securing funds for nine railway operating-cars for the French Government. These cars have carried many wounded soldiers.

Louise de Koven Bowen, vice-president of the United Charities of Chicago, Trustee and Treasurer of Hull House, president of the Woman's City Club and of the Juvenile Protective Association, is doing much active work as chairman of the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense, Illinois Division. She was also placed by Governor Lowden on the State Council of Defense. Mrs. Bowen has organized 1,660 units in Illinois.

Professor Irving Fisher of Yale University, now president of the American Economic Association, is organizing committees of that Association to study economic problems of the war, and to coöperate with government officials. He is chairman of the Committee on Purchasing Power of Money

in War Time. He is also chairman of a sub-committee on alcohol, connected with the Council of National Defense.

In June, 1917, he gave the commencement address at the University of North Dakota on Public Health in War Time. In October he gave the "Hitchcock Lectures" at the University of California on "Price Movements and Standardizing the Dollar." Immediately afterward he lectured in San Francisco, Portland, Seattle and Toronto, on the League to Enforce Peace, Prohibition, Public Health and Health Insurance, and Labor Discontent.

Dr. Sigismund S. Goldwater, ex-Commissioner of Health of the City of New York, has been serving as chairman of the Committee on Hospital and Medical Facilities of the Mayor's Committee on National Defense; chairman of the Committee on Third Zone Hospitals of the American Red Cross; chairman of the War Service Committee of the American Hospital Association, and chairman of the Committee on Hospitals of the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense.

George A. Hastings, executive secretary of the Committee on Mental Hygiene of the State Charities Aid Association, has been granted a leave of absence on half time by the Board of Managers to assist in the war work of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. Mr. Hastings' services were requested by the National Committee to help carry out its growing program for war activities.

The National Committee is aiding the United States Government in its efforts to exclude the mentally and nervously unfit from the army, and to provide facilities for the proper care of cases of nervous and mental disorder developing among soldiers in the cantonments and in the over-seas service. The committee is helping to obtain competent psychiatrists and neurologists for work in the medical corps, is aiding in the establishment of special schools for reserve officers, and helping to formulate plans for the reconstruction of disabled men.

With the assistance of his associate at the University of Pennsylvania, Dr. G. G. Huebner, Mr. Emory R. Johnson has brought out a new and much enlarged edition of the work which he published in 1906 upon "Ocean Transportation." The title of the volume is changed to "Principles of Ocean Transportation" and the book has been specially adapted for use as a text book in universities and colleges. Since July, 1917, Mr. Johnson has been giving more than one-half of his time to the Government service, being connected with the Transportation Bureau of the War Trade Board. Another of his activities is that of chairman of a sub-committee of the Railroad Committee of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Under the direction of this sub-committee, a study is to be made of needed railroad facilities and their cost. This study will extend through the year 1918 and possibly for a longer period.

Professor Vernon L. Kellogg, of the Department of Entomology and Bionomics of Leland Stanford University, succeeded Mr. Herbert C. Hoover as director of the Commission for Relief in Belgium and Northern France. Since his return to America, in January, 1917, he has been assisting Mr. Hoover in the establishment of the United States Food Administration, in connection with which he is now busy in Washington.

Professor Frederic S. Lee who, during 1917 was president of the American Physiological Society, has been re-elected for the year 1918. Since the United States entered the war, he has been engaged in a study of industrial fatigue in munition factories, for the purpose of determining the conditions under which the maximum production of war supplies can be secured. In pursuing this work, Professor Lee is acting as chairman of the Sub-Committee on Industrial Fatigue of the National Research Council; executive secretary of the Committee on Industrial Fatigue, under the Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense; and Consulting Physiologist of the United States Public Health Service, Treasury

Department. An extensive investigation of the work of several of the munition factories is still being made. The results so far accomplished have been presented before various scientific bodies, and will be published in detail by the Public Health Service.

During the summer of 1916, Dr. Rosalie S. Morton was excused from service as adjunct Professor of Gynaecology, New York Polyclinic Medical School and Hospital, in order to pursue in Europe the study of the effect of war industries and their strain on the health of women, and also the technique in the English and French Field and Base Hospitals. She gave volunteer service in a French military Field Hospital, near Salonica, where she was authorized by General Ruotte, Director General, *Service de Santé de l'Armée d'Orient*, to wear the French medical military uniform. She was decorated by the Serbian Government with the Order Chevalier Royal de St. Sava for distinguished personal service.

Since her return from Europe, Dr. Morton has been active in war service, having instituted a canvass of 6,000 women physicians of the United States, followed by registration and classification for war work. Dr. Morton is chairman of the War Service Committee of the Medical Women's National Association which has organized the American Women's Hospitals, and chairman of the Committee of Women Physicians of the General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense.

In June, 1917, Dr. L. S. Rowe, Professor of Political Science at the University of Pennsylvania, was appointed Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. During the year, Dr. Rowe published a special report on the effect of the European War on the finances, commerce and industry of Chile.

Henry Suzzallo, president of the University of Washington, at Seattle, director and chairman of the State Council of Defense for the State of Washington, has been made director and co-ordinator of all civilian war coöperation within the state. As Northwestern representative of the Planning

Division of the Shipping Board for Labor Survey of Washington and Oregon Ship Yards, he is directing for the Shipping Board, an independent investigation to determine the possibility of increasing production in the steel ship yards of the Pacific Northwest. President Suzzallo was arbitrator of the street car strikes of Tacoma and Seattle. Six traction companies, in five cities, based their new wage scales on the awards made on the cost of living studies conducted by him.

Theodore N. Vail, head of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, who at the outbreak of the war offered his services to the Government, was made chairman of a Committee on Communication under the Council of National Defense.

It has been said that no other government has entered war with such highly perfected and comprehensive telephone facilities as those which Mr. Vail has been instrumental in providing, both in America and wherever our military forces have gone.

Mr. Vail served on the governmental committee which canvassed the grain situation and fixed the price for American wheat; was chairman of the committee which made a successful Christmas drive to secure ten million or more new Red Cross members, and did much important work for the Library War Council which collected over a million dollars to provide books for our soldiers and sailors.

To her other activities Miss Lillian D. Wald has added the chairmanship of the Committee on Home Nursing, Sanitation Section of the Committee on Welfare Work of the Committee on Labor of the Council of National Defense. She represents public health on the Conference Board of the Council of Women's Organizations, the Committee of Women on National Defense, and is a member of the Committee on Nursing, General Medical Board of the Council of National Defense, of the New York State Committee of the Committee on Women in Industry, Advisory Commission of the Council of National Defense, and of the Food Administration Campaign, New York City.

In addition to meeting the increased demands made by the war on Charles S. Ward, as secretary of the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Association, involving among other things, the raising of fifty million dollars for the Y. M. C. A. war work, Mr. Ward has served as director of the last national campaign for the American Red Cross and is now chairman of the Advisory Committee for the May campaign.

Mr. Ward also served with Mr. Hoover and Mr. Walcott on the committee which enrolled thirteen million families in one week as members of the United States Food Administration. Signal service was rendered by Mr. Ward to various church organizations in his capacity as advisory director in campaigns for war relief.

Dr. Joseph Augustus White, professor of ophthalmology, has organized for the Government the Examining Aviation Unit in Richmond, Va., and is now acting as civilian head of the Unit.

Dr. Linsly R. Williams, in March, 1917, resigned as Deputy Commissioner of Health, New York State, to become a member of the Scientific Commission of the National Research Council to study conditions in France and England. In September, Dr. Williams was commissioned as Major in the Medical Reserve Corps and ordered to active duty in the office of the Division Surgeon, Camp Lee, Petersburg, Va. Since January, he has held the post of Sanitary Inspector.

The executive abilities of Honorable Arthur Woods, former Police Commissioner of New York, have won for him the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel in the United States Flying Corps. This places Lieutenant-Colonel Woods in the administration of the air service, where he will help work out plans for the most effective distribution of American aviators.

REHABILITATION

Miss Elsie de Wolfe has from the beginning of the war been actively interested in the Ambrine Cure for the burned. Since May, 1917, Miss de Wolfe has been active in the Ambrine Mission Hospital at Compiègne, where she is working under the direction of Dr. Barthe de Sandfort, the inventor of ambrine.

Mrs. Ripley Hitchcock, one of the vice-presidents of the National Institute, has recently organized under the name of the "Art War Relief" a series of committees composed of women who are members of the following organizations: Art Alliance of America, Art Students League, Art Workers' Club, Catherine Lorillard Wolfe Art Club, Macdowell Club, American Society of Miniature Painters, National Arts Club, National Academy of Design, National Association of Women Painters and Sculptors, New York School of Fine and Applied Art, American Water Color Society, Pen and Brush Club, Pratt Institute School of Fine and Applied Art, School of Applied Design for Women, Studio Club, Fine Arts Department Teachers College, Columbia University, The Three Arts Club, and New York Water Color Club.

The chief object of the Art War Relief is to bring together artists, art students and others interested in art, as well as artisans, for the purpose of patriotic service, especially with a view to helping in the re-education of disabled soldiers and sailors by giving instruction in the handicrafts and in securing positions for those so taught.

The committee on re-education is now making a survey of the crafts and art industries as a preliminary to the organization of a plan, by means of which work may be obtained for convalescent soldiers and sailors confined to their homes and thus afford them a permanent means of livelihood. The committee also hopes to provide special workshops for those who, though disabled, are strong enough to seek work outside their homes.

Artists disabled by the war are to be assisted and aid given to their families.

A further object of the Art War Relief is to coöperate with the committee appointed by the Federal Government in obtaining propaganda posters and to serve as a clearing-house for all posters designed for patriotic service.

As an auxiliary of the New York County Chapter of the American Red Cross, the Art War Relief, with offices at 661 Fifth Avenue, maintains headquarters for relief work. It is also active in establishing branches in art schools and art organizations for the purpose of making surgical dressings and other hospital supplies, and of providing knitted garments for war sufferers.

Another branch of the work is the painting of designation targets for use in our training camps. These targets are one of the interesting developments of modern military training, habituating as they do, the young recruit who has been ordered to fire, to locate with great rapidity the different points of a landscape toward which he is to aim, as for example, a clump of bushes, the shadow of a tree, the roof of a remote building. Many of our best known painters have lent their talents to the production of these targets.

In October, 1917, Miss Winifred Holt went to France for the second time in connection with the work of her Committee for Men Blinded in Battle, and for its French counterpart, founded also by her, the *Comité Franco-Américain pour les Aveugles de la Guerre*.

Miss Holt has started in France three Phares (light-houses). The parent establishment the Phare de France, is at 14 rue Daru, Paris. Blinded soldiers receive there a thorough re-education, and go into trades and professions. Another Phare is at Bordeaux where men of less capacity are trained in manual labor. At each of these places there are some fifty resident pupils, with several day pupils who live at home but come to the Phare for their classes. The third Phare was started at Sèvres on January 3, 1918, with ten men in residence. At this one they are re-educated in reading, writing, arithmetic, and at the same time work at the Sèvres potteries, where they are employed by the French Government. At the Phare de France there is an electric printing press, which issues a magazine and prints up-to-date

books in large editions. Out-teachers are constantly teaching in the hospitals and are sent for when the doctors detect blindness or fear it for some soldier. At one time there were thirty hospitals using these teachers. Miss Holt herself usually goes to a new case, especially if the man has not been told that he is blind, and is still wearing the bandages over his eyes.

Then there is the follow-up work for the pupils who have graduated. They are watched to see if they give satisfaction in the places found for them. If they are "on their own," their financial progress is watched, their needs for materials supplied, and the like. The graduate pupils come back to the Phare and help in teaching and entertaining the men there.

The entire work is carried on with the coöperation of the French Government, which furnishes supplies for the men and grants a daily stipend for their training. Additional funds, however, are sorely needed.

Miss Luisita Leland, secretary of the National Executive Committee of "The Fatherless Children of France," and chairman of the New York Committee, reports that in the large cities of this country one hundred and fifty committees have now been formed. About two million dollars have been raised in sums varying from three to thirty-six dollars. Of the four-hundred thousand dollars raised by the New York Committee, no single cent has been used for expenses. The organization has now been incorporated, with Miss Leland as one of the directors. General Joffre is president of the Paris Committee.

Miss Anne Morgan has been decorated by the French Minister of Agriculture for her work at Blérancourt, (Aisne) France. She spent nine months in the devastated regions of that province, serving as a member of the Civilian Committee of the American Fund for French Wounded. The special work of this committee was the rehabilitation of villages and the restoration of the soil for agricultural purposes. Thousands of trees were planted under her supervision and thousands of acres sown with grain.

The Honorable Myron T. Herrick is president of the American Committee for Devastated France, and Miss Morgan

is first vice-president. The headquarters are at 16 East 39th Street. This committee has been asked by the French Ministry of War to organize, as quickly as possible, another unit for Alsace and still another in the North.

Mr. and Mrs. William Salomon during the autumn of 1917 furnished and equipped as a hospital their London house, St. Katharine's Lodge, Regent's Park.

This hospital was then given to the American Red Cross. At the opening ceremony, the American Ambassador, Mr. Walter Hines Page, was present. The hospital contains forty beds, has a resident staff of four house surgeons, (all Americans) and a corps of American and Canadian nurses. The visiting surgeons may be English.

Designed especially for reconstructive or orthopedic work for wounded American officers, the hospital opened its doors at once to wounded English officers, and will continue to care for them until the arrival of our own wounded men. For the duration of the war, Mr. and Mrs. Salomon will support the hospital outright, exclusive only of the medical unit, for which the American Red Cross is responsible.

ARTS AND SCIENCES

Mr. Carl E. Akeley, taxidermist at the American Museum of Natural History, is the first member of his profession to approach his art from the standpoint of the sculptor. As explorer and naturalist, Mr. Akeley has studied his types in their native environment. Abundant evidence of the fruitful application of his observations in the wild is found in the remarkable group of elephants, mounted in their natural attitudes, which Mr. Akeley has prepared for the new African Hall of the Museum.

William H. Ballou, Sc.D., owner of the Science News Service, has created for himself a unique place as interpreter of scientific research to the general public. Much of his work is distributed by the International Feature Service, through many of the leading Sunday newspapers of the United States,

whose weekly readers mount up in the millions. Dr. Arthur L. Day, director of the Geophysical Laboratory, Carnegie Institute, Washington, writes in regard to Dr. Ballou: "It is a pleasure, not to say novelty, to find a man of scientific training engaged in science news service," while Dr. John Grier Hibben, president of Princeton University, commends the interesting manner in which the results of general research are presented.

Dr. Ballou is well known to the mycological world as a discoverer and collector of fungi. He has a collection of over a thousand species, gathered in New York City alone.

The Lloyd Institute, Cincinnati, announces that the geographical range of the fungus, *polyporus ballouii*, has been extended from Brazil to the State of Washington, where it was recently collected by Dr. Charles H. Kauffman of the University of Michigan. This pure parasite, which attaches itself to the living bark of white oaks, was originally discovered on Staten Island. It was erected into a valid new species because of its breeding from the smallest spores known to the genus.

Dr. Ballou recently settled the status of two rare fungi, *panus strigosus* and *plyporus glomeratus*.

Katherine Lee Bates, professor of English literature in Wellesley College, has recently edited for the Belles Lettres Series two plays of Thomas Heywood, "A Woman Killed with Kindness" and "Fair Maid of the West," with a full biographical introduction supplying new data concerning the life of the author.

Lindell T. Bates, LL.D., secretary and treasurer of the Submarine Defense Association, has invented two anti-submarine devices, now being tried out on the U. S. S. *Gem*.

Dr. Isaac M. Cline, district forecaster, United States Weather Bureau, stationed at New Orleans, rendered signal service to the agricultural interests of the southwest and the public in general in warnings and advices issued for the unprecedented early freezes in October, 1917. The value of the sugar crop saved by these warnings will amount to several

million dollars. Nearly half the Irish and sweet potato crops and many of the smaller matured vegetable crops were also saved. The great saving of food supplies as a direct result of the advices given by the Weather Bureau in this instance can hardly be estimated.

During the year 1917, Melville T. Cook, Plant Pathologist, New Jersey Agricultural Experiment Stations, was president of the American Phytopathological Society and at the December meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science he was elected secretary of the Botanical Section.

The laboratory building and plant houses of the Brooklyn Botanic Garden, of which Dr. C. Stuart Gager is director, were dedicated on April, 19-21, 1917. In addition to the dedication addresses, over forty papers were presented at the scientific sessions by botanists from the principal universities east of the Mississippi river. The work of the Botanic Garden has been largely confined to war gardens at the institution itself, and to the supervision of vacant lot and backyard gardens and the distribution of seed throughout the Borough of Brooklyn.

Stansbury Hagar, president of the Department of Ethnology of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, Fellow of the American Ethnological Society, etc., has devoted himself for some years to a study of the astronomy of the North American Indians, especially to the symbolic astronomy associated with the zodiac.

Evidence is three-fold of the existence among the more cultured peoples of the Western Hemisphere, of a zodiac, corresponding closely in name with our own zodiacal signs received from the prehistoric Orient.

1. A star-chart drawn by an Aymara of Peru about 1613 depicts the twelve signs known to us.

2. Place names within and around the sacred capital city Cuzco reflected the names and comparative positions of the celestial signs.

3. The ritual of the annual festivals one of which was held each month and was directed towards the sign through which the sun was passing at the date of the festival, that is, the details of each ceremony reflected the attributes of its government sign. The existence of this zodiac is further attested by Blas Valera, a half-blood Quichua who wrote only a generation after the conquest, as well as by early Spanish writers.

Traces of the knowledge and religious significance of the zodiac are also found among the Mayas, the Nahuas of Mexico, the Pueblos and Hopi Indians. Mr. Hagar bases on this evidence a very interesting deduction, namely, that by some route or routes as yet unknown, accidental or sporadic communication between the Eastern and Western hemispheres must have existed at least many centuries before the coming of Columbus.

Mr. Hagar has made a special study also of the astronomy and ethnology of the Star of Bethlehem, and is about to publish his novel interpretation of that phenomenon in *Popular Astronomy*.

Mr. George Hamlin, in the spring of 1917, was one of the artists to present, under the auspices of the Society of American Singers, works like Gounod's "Mock Doctor" and Mozart's "Impresario," heretofore little known in this country. Mr. Hamlin will take part again this year in the Music Festival at Worcester, Mass.

Mr. Frederic Ives, Rumford Medallist for inventions in photo-engraving and color photography, inventor of the "Hicrome" process, etc., has been devoting some time to experiments in moving picture color photography at the Lasky Studios in Los Angeles.

Mr. F. F. Mackay, true to the ideals of a life-time, again emphasizes the need of a National Art Theatre in America. He writes:

"Ignorance is a mental condition that knows no governing force, and superstition is its most favored product. In the

early centuries of church rule all fine art was opposed because it made earth attractive.

"Art results from a co-ordination of muscle with mental intention. It matters not how grand or beautiful the thought may be, it can be presented to the world only through muscular action. Painting, sculpture and architecture are arts, and each art has an underlying science, a formulated knowledge of color and form in combination.

"Acting is an art; and its underlying science is a knowledge of human emotions. The presentation of these in truthful combinations, making thereby a perfect illustration of human nature under the given conditions and environments, constitutes the science and the art of the dramatist; and he who has most tersely and clearly recorded in prose and in poetry the mental elations and mental depression of the human mind rises like a meteor above the vaporous mental conditions of his surroundings and becomes a fixed star in the dramatic firmament, blazoning the literary pathway to the theatre with a light yet undimmed through the centuries of time. All great dramatists love Shakespeare.

"Why should there not be an art theatre erected in America to preserve the works and to honor the name of Shakespeare, at whose shrine no modern dramatic author would fail to pay respectful reverence? Dramatic art is not merely an entertainer—it is an educator, and has ever been a progressive force in the highest civilization. Aeschyles and Sophocles of the Greek dramatists, and Seneca of the Roman playwrights, taught the moral forms of the nations from the theatres; and thus the theatre became an educational force long before our present system of moral teaching was known.

The science which underlies the art of acting is a knowledge of human emotion. It is a psychological study. And to make the art theatre perfect there must be a conservatory where students may study not alone the art of acting; the conservatory must teach also the English language, which is at present very much misused on the stage. The stage should be a standard for proper articulation, pronunciation and the voicing of the author's thought.

"War is always either the beginning or the end of a civilization. Let us hope that this present world-war may lift

humanity to a higher plane of reasoning, where fact may take the place of fiction, and truth prevail over hallucinated imagination. Then may we have an art theatre wherein may be presented man's interior life; for, as the warrior and the legislator mark the advancement of a nation's exterior life, so does the dramatic art note the interior or family life of the people. The psychology of dramatic art is a study which, when properly encouraged, must enable the student to respond to that wonderful life command: Man, know thyself."

Mr. Mackay several years ago published a book on acting containing an analysis of the means of re-presenting human emotion. It constitutes one of the few studies of the technique of acting printed in this country.

Miss Elizabeth Marbury has been twice decorated by the French Government for services rendered to men of letters in France. During a period covering twenty years, nearly all foreign plays of importance produced among us, have passed through her hands and she has been responsible for introducing to American audiences many of the world's greatest playwrights. Since 1914, Miss Marbury has been prominent in numerous war activities.

The most important work of Henry Fairfield Osborn during the year is the publication of "The Origin and Evolution of Life" (Scribner's), in which a new energetic theory of the causes of the evolutionary processes is adumbrated.

In his general scientific researches Professor Osborn has continued his investigations on the monograph for the United States Geological Survey entitled "The Titanotheres," which was begun eighteen years ago, and has completed the first division of his monograph on the evolution of the horse, a subject on which he has been more or less continuously engaged since 1891.

For the war Professor Osborn has directed the designing of the Liberty Field Hospital Ward, on the unit construction principle, and has also taken an active part in food and health propaganda.

During the past year, Herschel C. Parker, president of the Kahiltna Gold and Platinum Deposits, Incorporated, has continued his reconnaissance of the gold and platinum deposits in the region of Mount McKinley, Alaska. Mr. Parker was the first to report to the United States Geological Survey the occurrence of platinum in commercial quantities in this region. He has also discovered actual veins of material carrying the platinum metals in large amounts in this same territory. If, on the basis of these discoveries, the rich platinum deposits of Alaska are developed, there is no reason why the United States should not in the near future, have a plentiful supply of platinum.

The practical application of Dr. M. A. Rosanoff's brilliant solution of the problem of distillation to the production of two substances highly necessary to the successful prosecution of the war is of great importance to the nation at the present time.

In the extraction of gasoline from crude petroleum older processes require four separate distillations and even then an appreciable portion of the gasoline remains unrecovered. By Dr. Rosanoff's process all the gasoline is separated in one single step. From a crude fraction of coal-tar the process has yielded toluol as nearly chemically pure as has ever been obtained. Only the purest toluol can be safely used in the manufacture of high explosives. In the case of different crudes, the increased yield due to Dr. Rosanoff's process varies from ten to twenty per cent. of the amounts hitherto extracted.

Dr. Clark Wissler, anthropologist of the American Museum of Natural History, has just published a new book on the American Indian, with the sub-title "An Introduction to the Anthropology of the New World." This book deals with the origin, culture, language, archaeology, and racial characteristics of the Indian tribes, and is equipped with a large series of distribution maps for agriculture, transportation, weaving, costume, social organization, language, archaeology, etc. The work will interest students of geography, history, sociology, and economics.

SOCIAL BETTERMENT—PHILANTHROPY

In a paper read at the Mississippi Valley Conference on Tuberculosis in September, 1915, entitled "A Plea for a Federal Commission on Tuberculosis," Dr. Lee K. Frankel suggested that to handle the tuberculosis problem effectively it would be necessary to institute methods which would involve not only accurate and painstaking scientific research along both medical and social lines, but the application of the results of such research to isolated and if necessary segregated groups of individuals who may be kept under constant observation.

In this paper Dr. Frankel pictured a mythical island on which the effort would be made to ascertain every case of tuberculosis, to give adequate treatment and to install necessary preventive measures. When it became evident that there was no likelihood of the appointment of a federal commission Dr. Frankel suggested to the Board of Directors of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company that they appropriate \$100,000 to carry on a community experiment in which stress should be placed on periodic medical examination of all members of the community, medical and nursing care of all cases of tuberculosis, sanatorium or hospital care for such cases as may need it, a tuberculosis clinic or dispensary, coöperation of local or city officers, employers, labor unions, school authorities, etc. The Board of Directors acted favorably on this suggestion and an offer was made to the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis to conduct the experiment. In 1917 the Community Health Demonstration at Framingham, Mass., was inaugurated.

Hastings H. Hart, LL.D., director of the Russell Sage Foundation's Department of Child-Helping, has, like the staff of the Foundation in general, been put to great use in war service. It has fallen to him to prepare war-programs for the States of West Virginia, Florida and South Carolina. In these it has been his endeavor to yoke up the war relief of the State with the work of the social agencies, and so to organize the war work that it could be used for the civilian population after the war is over. The West Virginia Council of Defense

explains the printing of Dr. Hart's program "because of the necessity for the enlargement of social service and welfare work, not only for the present responsibilities of caring for those who have offered their lives on the battle line and the dependents who remain at home but as an incentive for permanent material progress in this field of service."

Mr. Wm. J. Homer, warden of Great Meadow Prison, thus describes the base upon which his methods of administration are built:

"The object of imprisonment is of course first protective and then reformative. That is, by first removing from general association and from civil privileges those who perform unsocial acts society secures its own protection. This protection obtained, the dictates of conscience and common sense alike require that every effort shall be directed to inducing in the offender a social frame of mind, so that he shall be a reasonably safe person to become once more a part of the public life of the state. This is what is meant by 'reformation.'

"Experience teaches me that the base of all successful relationship between man and man—yes, even between man and the animals—is confidence. To establish such a relationship, the one in authority, be he father of a family of children or warden of a penal institution, must have first of all more patience than child or ward; he must be able to see a whole house of cards kicked over and patiently to start once more to build it again. Such a method of administration takes place before the inmates, they behold in it an object lesson. Confidence is the result.

"A base of confidence being established between inmate and warden, it can be increased by their coming into personal contact with each other. In the brief space at my disposal I can speak of but one feature of the administrative policy I carry out here.

"I am always accessible to every inmate and so is every other official of the institution. If any of the men want to see me about anything, there is no formality to be gone through with. My office door is open to them all day long. During the day, too, I make a tour of the institution and of the farm and road camps, so that any man who has anything on his mind

can talk it over with me while it is fresh and before it has had a chance to become an obsession. Talking things over together clears the air every day.

"It may be surmised that this makes a warden a slave of his job. Well, so it does. But every man who is earning his keep is a slave to his job, and certainly there is a full measure of reward and satisfaction in 'making men,' as the current phrase has it.

"I maintain that I could not put my men out at work on the farm and in the woods, or at building highways and other public works, practically unguarded—for the guard is the foreman of the job, called here and there, and as busy as the busiest man—and get the amount of work done that I do, going a year at a time without even an attempt at escape, if I were not, and if all my officials were not, in daily, friendly, personal contact with each and every man in my care at Great Meadow.

"It will be recalled that Great Meadow is an institution without walls; that guards carry no clubs or other weapons; that it is a farm prison, with its athletic field in the open, some distance from the institution."

Miss Sophie Irene Loeb is the new president of the Board of Child Welfare. It will be remembered that it was largely through Miss Loeb's indefatigable efforts that the measure known as the Widows' Pension Law was passed in 1915 by the New York State Legislature. This measure provided for the creation of a Child Welfare Board, and in August, 1915, the first one for New York City was appointed. According to the statement of the executive secretary of the Board, based on two years' operation of the law, its efficient administration has been accomplished at a cost of less than three per cent. to taxpayers.

In addition to her duties on the Board of Child Welfare, Miss Loeb was active in pushing through the bill providing for community centres and civic forms in public schools for the purpose of Americanizing the alien.

Miss Loeb acted as mediator between capital and labor in the 1917 taxi-cab strike, which she settled to the satisfaction of both parties concerned. In her opinion, the taxi-cab strike

is the best example of the principle that it is by peaceful rather than by violent means that in the long run strikes are won.

Miss Lena McGhee and Miss Katherine Mason are continuing their splendid work at St. Faith's House, in Tarrytown, N. Y. Since the opening of the mission, seventeen years ago, it has cared for young girls who have taken their first wrong step or been innocently wronged. These girls from thirteen years old up with their babies are sheltered, trained and cared for until the child is two years old, when safe homes are found for them. Miss McGhee writes:

"In all work like ours the extent of the success or failure is known only to God. Still, perhaps because of our weak faith or weariness by the way, He often gives us to see glimpses of the blessings He has showered upon our labors. We are watching today with wonder and pleasure the career of one, who as a baby was under our care and is now serving his country in the Medical Reserves and is winning one promotion after another for fine constructive work. We are not less proud of the mother, who has faithfully and unselfishly toiled and struggled to give her boy every chance for success. Among several hundred others, we can mention only a few, a boy grown to manhood under his mother's faithful care, who, when her husband was laid aside, supported his mother and her two children. A large number of our girls have married, the husband adopting the wife's child as his own. A number were trained and have been serving for years as good faithful nurses; three became librarians, two taking their courses of study while with us. There are stories of brave lives, loyal helpful lives. Through all the years not one story of ill-doing on the part of our growing children has come to us. Ours is a record only of planting the seed, leaving the growth in Higher Hands."

Mrs. Mary K. Simkhovitch, who fifteen years ago, founded the old Greenwich House at 26 Jones Street, New York City, is now director of the new Greenwich House which was opened to the Neighborhood in December, 1917. On the roof is an open air school for children. In the basement there are a carpenter shop and a potters' kiln, and in between

a gymnasium and running track; a boys' club floor, and a girls' club floor; dining room; auditorium, a sewing and weaving room, and various other appointments which make the House ideal for settlement work.

In explanation of their work of the Boy Conservation Bureau, Mr. E. W. Watkins says:

"After financing their support, we send most of our boys to Boys' Home Industrial Farm Schools. From time immemorial men and women have supported boys, other than their own, at schools, but as far as we know, we are the only organization that does this specific form of work. . . . Before sending a boy away, we find a man or woman to furnish us the funds for his support. One man is backing fifteen boys; another ten; one woman four; another three, and many others two or one each. We keep in close touch with each of our boys and when one has reached the working age, we find him suitable employment and a proper place to live. . . . Forty-six of our boys are in the Army and Navy."

Mr. Felix M. Warburg is chairman of the Joint Distribution Committee representing the American Jewish Relief Committee, the Central Relief Committee and the People's Relief Committee. This Committee raises throughout the United States funds from the Jews of this country for the relief of war sufferers.

Mr. Warburg was instrumental in starting and is secretary of the Board of Managers of the Young Men's Hebrew and Kindred Associations throughout the country. This organization has about 372 affiliated associations.

In addition to the foregoing Mr. Warburg organized and since its inception has been the first president of the Federation for the Support of Jewish Philanthropic Societies. This Federation has eighty-four large Jewish charitable and benevolent institutions affiliated with it and acts as a clearing house for seven hundred more smaller Jewish charitable agencies.

PERSONAL ITEMS

During the past year, Mrs. Fannie Fern Andrews wrote an extended article on "The Freedom of the Seas" for the Research Department of the Central Organization for a Durable Peace. This was published in Volume III of "*Recueil de Rapports, sur les différents points du programme-minimum*," by Martinus Nijhoff at The Hague. This study is a discussion of the fundamental principles underlying the freedom of the seas and makes specific applications of these principles to some of the leading events of the war. The study also includes an historical survey of the subject and presents the opinions of leading American authorities on the future development of the principle of the immunity of private unoffending property of the enemy upon the high seas. The article by Mrs. Andrews is most timely, since the problem of the freedom of the seas will undoubtedly prove one of the most difficult of those to be put forward at the peace settlement.

Mrs. Andrews is taking her third year of graduate work in international law at Radcliffe College under Professor Wilson of Harvard University. Besides this, she has assisted in Government war work, principally in the fields of education and international relations.

Mrs. Elizabeth Preston Anderson, President of the W. C. T. U. of North Dakota and Recording Secretary of the National W. C. T. U., continues active in her campaign for social welfare legislation in her own State. Since the passage of the presidential and municipal suffrage bill and also of the suffrage amendment by the last legislature, Mrs. Anderson, long a supporter of Woman's Suffrage, has been vigorously using the changed situation in the interest of certain social reforms she has at heart.

As chairman of the Committee on War-Time Housing, Mr. Grosvenor Atterbury has submitted a report to Mr. Robert W. de Forest, president of the National Housing Association, showing that the housing situation now confront-

ing the country is a war emergency warranting government intervention. The Committee urges the immediate appointment of a housing administrator to have direct charge of the housing of the workers in the war industries of the country.

Since for the most part private employers are unable to meet the emergency even though they are handling government contracts, it is proposed that the necessary legislation be obtained from Congress empowering the President to loan government money upon proper security to employers of labor and to other agencies for the housing of workers in industries producing goods necessary for the successful conduct of the war.

In order to insure permanency of occupation, these houses must satisfy a reasonable standard of living conditions. Moreover, in the interest of general housing development, the Government could not well afford to place the stamp of its approval on inferior enterprises. Communities developed along scientific, economic and attractive lines would represent a lasting advantage to the country.

Mr. Atterbury tells us elsewhere how low-cost houses can be obtained. Three requisities are in his judgment fundamental: honest and efficient government, scientific building regulation, and organized scientific research work in economic construction. For lack of these, home-building is out of all proportion expensive, and home-makers are at the mercy of the speculative builder. The remedy Mr. Atterbury would apply is standardization, *i. e.*, the manufacture of "standard dwellings," wholesale, in a "ready-made" system, just as boots and shoes, watches and clothes are now fabricated for the benefit of the slender purse.

In 1917, a corporation was actually formed for the manufacture of standardized houses, with Mr. Atterbury as consultant on Community Planning and Industrial Housing. This corporation received from Mr. Atterbury the exclusive right to use all patents and designs necessary to the operation of the system, subject only to the right of the Sage Foundation under the auspices of which much research work was carried out, and to employ it in its own philanthropic building operations. Dwellings built by this system are now in use and under construction at Forest Hills Gardens, Long Island, and at Sewaren, N. J.

Continuing his preparations for the writing of "John Muir's Life and Letters," Dr. William Frederic Badè last summer covered a good part of Muir's exploration routes in Alaska. The latest volume in the series edited by Dr. Badè from John Muir's letters and journals is the "Cruise of the Corwin," recently published by the Houghton, Mifflin Co.

Mr. John Barrett, the Director General of the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C., has devoted his efforts during the last year largely to the Pan American situation as effected by the war. In view of the fact that the Latin-American countries have been divided in their attitude toward the nations engaged in the world's struggle, he has endeavored to make sure that Pan American solidarity and Practical Pan Americanism as believed in by all the American countries should not be weakened thereby, and that when the war is over they should stand together for the development of that kind of coöperation which will benefit alike themselves and the nations of Europe and Asia. The Pan American Union, the international organization of all American Republics, has under his direction been more occupied than ever before in the development of commerce, friendship, good understanding, intercourse and peace among the American Republics.

During the past year, George W. Barstow, of Barstow, Texas, delivered and published several addresses on topics relating to social welfare and to war. Among them a *brochure* entitled, "Shall Democracy Endure—in the United States," has been given wide circulation.

Dr. Lucius P. Brown, Director of the Bureau of Food and Drugs of the New York City Department of Health, was last year elected President of the Central Atlantic States' Food and Drug Officials' Association. Dr. Brown is now serving as a member of the Federal Milk Commission and lectures frequently on Conservation in connection with the city's food supply.

Henry E. Bourne, professor of History at Western Reserve University, delivered in January and February of this year a course of eight lectures at the Lowell Institute, Cleveland, O., on Food, Money and Trade in the Great Wars of a Century Ago. The titles of some of these lectures—"The Menace of Famine in France in 1793," "Price-Fixing and The Reign of Terror," "Freedom of the Seas in Napoleon's Day"—arouse the hope that the series may soon be made accessible to a wider public in book form.

Honorable Joseph Buffington, Senior United States Circuit Judge of the Third Circuit, delivered a short address to applicants for naturalization in the District Court at Philadelphia on April 6, 1917. He also intended that the address should be "a message to the thousand and thousands of the foreign-born of the nation." The Committee on Public Information has printed the address under the title of "Friendly Words to the Foreign-Born" and is issuing a million copies in half a dozen languages.

Dr. Samuel P. Capen, specialist in higher education, was recently appointed advisory member of the War Department Committee on Education and Special Training, the function of which will be the mobilization of the country's schools and colleges behind the Army.

Mrs. C. R. Chenoweth has been devoting herself during the past year to war relief in connection with the Special Aid Society and the British Relief. As a member of the War and Navy Department Commissions on Training Camp Activities, officially represented by the Playground and Recreation Association of America, Mrs. Chenoweth is active in providing hospitality and amusement for the enlisted men.

Mrs. Chenoweth is known as the Founder of the Daughters of Holland Dames, through whose generosity a field kitchen was recently sent to France.

Dr. H. Holbrook Curtis, who presided at the Dollar Dinner of the Public Interest League, on April 30, 1916, where Professor Sloane of Columbia University spoke on "Socialism in

American Colleges," uttered later the following prophecy as to the part likely to be played by Socialism in ending the war. "Nobody," he said, "seems to be aware of the impending fate of the house of Hohenzollern, caused, not by the strength of the Allies, but by the intense resentment of the proletariat of Germany at the recent arrest of Karl Liebknecht, son of the late William Liebknecht, now editor of *Vorwärts* and leader of the social democratic party in the Reichstag. His father, in the nineties, was instrumental in overthrowing the anti-socialist legislation of Bismarck.

"No man, in July, 1914, was more feared by the Kaiser than this powerful anti-militarist, who occupied the same position among the socialists in Germany as did Gustave Hervé in France. Had their expressed anti-patriotism been as strong as was indicated in the propaganda for the formation of an International Social Democracy, to have been created at the proposed meeting of the General Confederation of Labor of France, and subsequently to have been followed by a non-military strike, the armies of Germany and France might not have responded to the call to the colors as they did on August 1st.

"The tragic murder on July 31st of that magnetic socialistic orator, Jaurès, a man who moved his audiences as no speaker had done in France for many years, was the climax of the tension of the French Chamber and the Ministry of War.

"At this crisis, Gustave Hervé awoke to the fact that the German Social Democrats were not to be depended upon to take part in an international anti-military demonstration, and so, notifying the French socialists to postpone their anti-patriotic and anti-military strike, offered his sword and services for the defense of his country.

"Liebknecht has recently been worrying the German authorities by his questions as to why the Imperial Government was at war and what they hoped to gain by the sacrifice of millions of the proletariat. He has insisted that war should be entered into as the result of a common vote, and not at the dictum of an ambitious sovereign. These suggestions, made by their devoted leader, have become the ideals of the mourning families of Germany, until today there is such a tendency to a widespread disgust at the atrocities of war and the desper-

ate condition of the population at home that the exasperated Emperor has incarcerated Liebknecht as a means of checking criticism and reproving the Social Democrats.

"History will undoubtedly repeat itself, and this act of the government will doubtless usher in the awakening of the deluded people who are led to believe that Germany is victorious on all fronts, and that world rule will be the ultimate result of this struggle. The mute appeal of Liebknecht in prison will be a stronger and more destructive force toward the disintegration of Germany than the Creusot seventy-fives and the battleships of nations; meanwhile, by making a martyr they strengthen the cult, and accomplish what they wish especially to avoid."

Henry F. Cutler, D.C.L., principal of Mount Hermon School, returned last year from Belgium where he was connected as a member with the Commission for Relief under Mr. Hoover.

During the past year Samuel T. Dutton, as treasurer and American representative of the Constantinople College for Women, has not only had to provide funds for the support of the College during this trying period, but has had to look after the interests of members of the faculty who found themselves stranded in Switzerland. It was through his instrumentality that Dr. Mary Mills Patrick, president, received permission from the various governments involved to return to her post.

The American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief of the executive committee of which Mr. Dutton is chairman, has during the past two years and a half raised seven million dollars and has carried on relief work in the Russian Caucasus, in Persia, and in more than a hundred different centers in the Ottoman Empire. The active work of propaganda and the raising of funds has been carried on by the Laymen's Missionary Movement. Committees have been organized in all the large cities and towns in the United States and during the past few months the average receipts at the central office in New York have been twenty-five to thirty thousand dollars per day. Distribution in Turkey has been carried on through the efforts of the Swedish Legation, con-

suls in neutral countries, and nearly a hundred missionaries who have remained at their posts.

As general secretary of the World Court League, Mr. Dutton assisted in the editing and publication of the magazine known as "The World Court," which devotes its efforts to the support of the program of President Wilson and of a League of Nations with an international court as the central feature. The World Court League, while approving of most of the program of the League to Enforce Peace, does not support the particular method of using force as a sanction which stands as their leading proposal. Mr. Dutton has drawn up two reports for the use of the government touching problems in the near East.

Dr. Walter Goodnow Everett's "Moral Values" (Henry Holt & Company) aims to offer satisfactory answers to the insistent problems of the moral life. The problems of morality are treated as problems of value, and unified by a common principle. This principle is carried through from the first chapter to the last, where it is applied to the questions of religion. All human activities, it is shown, are judged to be good or bad, better or worse, according to the contribution which they are thought to make to the worth of human life as a whole. Man is indeed the only being we know that subjects his conduct to this test; he alone keeps accounts, and reckons the profit and loss of his transactions. The use of the idea of value helps to bring the discussion of moral problems into closer relations with the other sciences of value to which an increasing attention is now being given.

It is shown that morality is just the business of living, with all its complex and many-sided activities. A new table of values is presented which begins with economic goods and extends to those spiritual interests which find expression in religion. The narrower interpretation of the ethical life is thus broken down in the interest of a morality which is as wide as the entire struggle of humanity to realize itself in the task of civilization. The author defines civilization as "the effort progressively to embody in institutions, laws, customs, and ideals, all human values in just proportion." The age-long controversy concerning the fundamental relations of the

individual life and the social order is discussed, and the question of population maintained as a moral question. Parenthood cannot escape responsibility by referring the course of events to the mysteries of nature or to the inscrutable decrees of a Divine Providence. The extreme poverty which cripples and maims human lives is shown to be essentially immoral. The weak and evasive attitude of theology toward the evil of the world is held by Dr. Everett to be a fundamental defect, breaking down its sincerity and destroying its integrity. The defect is due to the incorrigible anthropomorphism or anthropopsychism of traditional belief, which still retains the animistic notions of primitive thought.

At a meeting recently held to turn over to the American Red Cross the work previously undertaken and administered in France by the Americans, Livingston Farrand, LL.D., president of the Rockefeller Anti-Tuberculosis Mission is quoted by *La Presse Medicale*, of October 8th, as saying:

"As a deeply interested observer, I see today two points which particularly engage my attention. The first is that the opportunity which presents itself at this time in France is one of the greatest in the history of the world; I believe I can go so far as to call it unique. I mean by that that the problem of tuberculosis, as it presents itself today in this country, offers not only an extraordinary extensive field, but finds a public whose ardent zeal is already resolved to neglect nothing to meet the situation; prepared also to accept the aid which may be brought from other countries to help in finding a solution. If the plans of the Red Cross and other organizations are realized, as we have every reason to suppose they will be, it will not require more than five years for France to be much better equipped in the campaign against tuberculosis than the United States is after fifteen years of active work. With conditions such as they are, and the opportunity such as it is, I believe that in five years the death rate due to tuberculosis will be lowered so materially as to promote greatly the future prosperity of France. The second point which strikes my attention is the quality of the work the French are already accomplishing by themselves. We Americans shall make a grave mistake if we take hold of this situation

with the idea that our rôle is one of direction. Our task here is not to give lessons, but simply to offer help which the French need and which we can give them. I wish that each one of us could see for himself the work being actually carried on in different parts of the country. The French have established or are about to establish institutions of the most modern type to combat tuberculosis. They have today not only dispensaries, sanatoriums, and hospitals constructed and equipped in accordance with the most modern ideas, but they have likewise organized clinics, or at least one clinic that I know of, well equipped for the intelligent treatment of tuberculosis in such a manner as would do credit to any state in the Union. When we remind ourselves that this has been accomplished in a time of war, when all efforts are stretched to the utmost and all resources called on to the point of exhaustion—accomplished without aid from outside—the success is even more remarkable. For these reasons, in view of the interest which I take in this great problem, I hail what has been done this afternoon. The committee has entrusted its interests and its task to the Red Cross. The Red Cross, as Major Murphy has said, regards itself as forming part of a great organization, which works for one great end; and I may say, speaking of the Rockefeller Foundation, that in the same manner I conceive of our responsibilities. . . . Working together, we shall seek to coöperate with the French Nation and to fight from all sides to check and eliminate this preventable plague."

Former United States Senator Robert J. Gamble has since July, 1917, been Director of the American Red Cross for South Dakota, and during that time, under his direction, its membership has been raised from the lowest in proportion to population to a place among the highest in the Union, being upwards of thirty-two per cent.

During the last year he has also been active in promoting within the state the development of the League to Enforce Peace.

Professor Franklin H. Giddings was this year the Colver lecturer at Brown University and gave a course on "The Responsible State: a re-examination of fundamental political

doctrines in the light of world war and the menace of anarchism," which, it is expected, will soon appear in book form.

During the year 1917, Professor Giddings gave to the press a volume on "Americanism in War and in Peace," Clark University Press, and a pamphlet on "The Bases of an Enduring Peace," published in April by the American Association for International Conciliation. To the January-March issue of the *Unpopular Review* he contributed "A Double Entry Education," to Vol. XIV of the *Journal of Philosophy, Psychology and Scientific Methods*, an article entitled, "The Method of Absolut Posit." Professor Giddings' patriotic fervor even led him into verse in the number of *The Nation* issued May 31, 1917.

William Mann Irvine, head master of the Mercersburg Academy, reports that some six hundred of his alumni are making good records in the Great War, having been represented on each battle front, including Persia, Mesopotamia, Egypt, the Dardanelles, Salonika, Italy, Russia, France, Belgium and England.

As a pastime every spring, Dr. Irvine plants with his own hands on the Academy estate from two hundred and fifty to a thousand trees. Most of these are seedlings from historic environments—beeches from the home of Gladstone, plane-trees from Abbotsford, English elms from Trinity Churchyard, at Stratford-on-Avon, from Eton, Rugby, Oxford and Cambridge. Some of his oaks are descendants of the Charter Oak in Connecticut, his American elms have sprung from the Penn Treaty Elm, the Washington Elm at Cambridge and other famous trees, while his willows boast as ancestors the old French willows planted by the Acadians in the land of Evangeline.

In an address delivered before the Chamber of Commerce of Harrisburg, Pa., last September, Mr. Otto H. Kahn accused the Prussian ruling caste of having vitiated a people who before "were and deserved to be an honored, valued and welcome member of the family of nations." Mr. Kahn characterized "the difference in the degree of guilt between the German people and their Prussian or Prussianized rulers as the dif-

ference between the innocent victim of a drug and its malevolent administrant." For the "unparalleled prosperity, the beneficent and advanced social legislation" which Prussia gave Germany, she took in payment "the soul of the race."

Mr. Kahn further stated that from the outset the Great War appealed to him as a conflict between fundamental principles and ideas, and that therefore each man, regardless of his origin, had to take sides as his judgment and conscience directed. How Mr. Kahn has solved the problem in his own case is abundantly testified by his stirring appeals to financiers to invest in the Liberty Loan and by his intention, as announced in his address before a loyalty meeting in St. Paul, to devote his surplus income to "charity and war purposes as long as the war lasts."

The Committee on Field Work of the Association of Urban Universities has, under the chairmanship of President Parke R. Kolbe of the University of Akron, recently issued a detailed report on the progress and administration of field work as an educational method. The term field work is defined as "the activities of students in the performance of the tasks of everyday life under actual conditions which may be accepted as directly related to concurrent class work." Under this broad definition of the subject, the committee has gathered information from a wide variety of educational fields in nearly a hundred leading institutions. Their report deals with the nature of field work, grade of students employed, methods of assignments, supervision of accrediting, financial remuneration, results obtained, training and assistance to public employees, limitations and coöperation in field work, and field work training with social agencies.

Mr. Walter H. Liebmann has been acting as an associate member of the Legal Advisory Committee in connection with the selective draft and is also at present Government Appeal Agent.

Mrs. Frederick Nathan, whose numerous public activities as one of the founders of the Consumers' League of New York City, first vice-president of the Equal Franchise Society and

delegate to various international congresses are widely known and appreciated, has been recently elected a director of the Inter-American Round Table, the purpose of which is to bring about closer relations between the women of the United States and the women of South America.

Mrs. Teresa R. O'Donohue, president of the League of Catholic Women, which was organized five years ago with the intention of coöperating with other civic bodies in New York City, says, that since the outbreak of the war, all other work it had undertaken has been set aside in order to give all of the League's energies to war service. In February, 1917, a resolution was passed to coöperate with the National League for Woman's Service. The headquarters of the League of Catholic Women is at 154 East 38th Street, where large workrooms have been opened. Regulation hospital supplies, garments for women and children and baby kits are made according to French standards. All of the output is sent to France where the needs are most acute for our soldiers and sailors as well as for our Allies.

Samuel H. Ordway in January, 1917, resigned from the New York State Civil Service Commission and was appointed by Governor Whitman, Justice of the Supreme Court of the State of New York, and served until the end of the year. In June, 1917, he was elected a fellow of Brown University, which conferred on him the degree of LL.D.

Mr. Ordway has been appointed by the President a member of the Federal District Board for the City of New York under the Selective Service Law.

Judge Calvin Page, who, while in the New Hampshire State Senate in 1903, introduced the bill for the election of United States Senators by the people, has lived to see such a measure become law, and is now himself a candidate at the first primary for nomination as United States Senator at the first election of a senator by the people of New Hampshire.

Francis B. Reeves has incorporated his experiences and impressions as relief agent in Russia during the famine of

1892 in a recent volume entitled: "Russia Then and Now." Mr. Reeves expresses in this book his persistent faith in the Russian people and in their leaders.

At the joint meeting of the Ohio Valley Historical Society and the Historical Society of Western Pennsylvania at Pittsburgh in December, 1917, Professor Wilbur H. Siebert of the Ohio State University read a paper on "The Loyalists of Pennsylvania." A monograph on the same subject, of which the above paper was a resumé, will soon appear in The Ohio State University Studies in History and Political Science. Professor Siebert has recently contributed an article to the *Encyclopedia Americana* on "The American Loyalists." He also has the leading article in the *New Armenia* for December, 1917, on "Independence for Armenia."

During the past year, Mr. Lispernard Stewart has devoted himself to several public activities. He is president of the New York Eye and Ear Infirmary, vice-president of the Seamen's Church Institute and trustee of the Roosevelt Hospital. He is also a manager of the New York Zoological Society, a member of its executive committee, and a trustee of the Grant Monument Association.

Charles F. Thwing, LL.D., president of the Western Reserve University says that some "four hundred of the students and teachers who were in the University last year have enlisted in the national service; and that over a thousand graduates and former students are now enrolled."

Judge Martin J. Wade of the United States District Court in Iowa, has been stirred, by what seems to him the growing disrespect for law in America, to address the Iowa Bar Association on the subject of "Education in Americanism" and to advocate the teaching of law in even primary schools.

During the early part of 1917, Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman made a survey of the South for the General Education Board which brought her in touch with many of the educational problems of women. For the five months following

she was lecturing continually in the normal schools, colleges and universities of Oregon and Washington during which time she was giving two lecture courses on Vocational Education and on Economics of Textiles in the Agricultural College of Oregon at Corvallis.

At the Portland meeting of the National Education Association, Mrs. Woolman was elected a vice-president.

As war service, since her return from the West, she has been directing a clothing department as a part of the work of the Food Facts Bureau of the Women's City Club of Boston. The purpose of this section is as follows:

1. To assemble, display and facilitate the distribution of printed material on the subject of clothing economy.
2. To co-ordinate the various separate agencies capable of giving specific information along this line by the establishment of a clearing house, through which, without losing their identity, they may coöperate.
3. To exhibit phases of clothing economy.
4. To issue from time to time, bulletins on the subject.

The bureau aims to give timely, valid information on the manufacture of textile materials and clothing, government regulations, buying, care and hygiene of clothing.

Professor Mary W. Young of Mount Holyoke College has been serving as chairman on the War Relief of the College and in addition is giving to students on Sundays a course on "Moral Problems of the War." Last summer, Professor Young raised on her own land almost enough vegetables and small fruits to take herself and family "off the market."

IN MEMORI^A

The National Institute of Social Sciences, in common with many charitable and patriotic organizations and our country as a whole, has suffered a great loss in the death, May 14, 1917, of the Honorable Joseph H. Choate.

Mr. Choate was born in Salem, Massachusetts, on January 24, 1832, and was educated at Harvard; but while Massachusetts claims him as one of the most illustrious of her sons, New York has long honored him as among her most distinguished citizens. His long and brilliant career as a member of the bar of New York City was supplemented by important services to the city and to the state, among them his part in the revision of the constitution in 1894, when as chairman he presided over the convention.

But Mr. Choate belonged conspicuously to the nation. As Ambassador to Great Britain he filled that great office with ability and dignity, and was honored as no ambassador had ever been, receiving in addition to the highest academic degrees from both Oxford and Cambridge and similar recognition from the Scotch universities, the unique distinction of election as a bencher of Lincoln Inn.

At the Second Peace Conference at The Hague, Mr. Choate, as America's first delegate, threw his splendid energies into the cause of international justice and left a deep impression upon all. His dignity of person, his unfailing courtesy, his charm of manner, and the weight of his learning and character made him a centre of interest and influence.

As one of his younger colleagues, I wish especially to testify to the deep affection by which we were all inspired through our intercourse with him. His humor and his eloquence are known and will always be remembered by all who have heard him speak, but only those who have had the privilege of intimate conference with him in the consideration of difficult public questions can fully appreciate the clarity of his

intellect, the balance of his judgment, and the devotion of his great talents to the highest ideals.

He fell bravely in the midst of strenuous efforts to stir the country to a sense of its great perils and its duty of action and of sacrifice. However long the roll of honor may become in the prosecution of the present struggle for the rights of nations, the name of Joseph Hodges Choate will have a secure place as a great American.

DAVID JAYNE HILL

The National Institute of Social Sciences desires to record its sense of personal loss in the death of its fellow-member, Dr. Henry M. Leipziger.

Dr. Leipziger was best known to the community through his work during the past quarter of a century as organizer and supervisor of the great public schools lecture movement which has developed so marvellously in recent years. His usefulness to the community, however, extended back forty years or more; he was one of those rare souls who combined practical work with spiritual vision. He realized early in life that nothing can be of greater value both to the individual and to the community than education. He understood that much misused word to mean development in the broadest sense. He strove to have education both practical and ideal, to combine preparation for a livelihood with preparation for life. He maintained that the hand as well as the eye required training, the heart as well as the brain.

Dr. Leipziger was an admirable exponent of his theories—a wide reader, a man of scholarly culture and withal courteous, gentle, sympathetic, human. It would be well for every school house in the country to have a portrait of Dr. Leipziger, to visualize his principles and ideals and hold them up for the strivings of future generations. For his creed was that material wealth counts for naught. The treasures of the world are at the disposal of all, if opportunity but be given them to acquire knowledge.

MAUD NATHAN

The death of Dr. Hollis B. Frissell, August 5, 1917, was one that among the great educators and leaders of thought in America, called out the widest expressions of feeling. "He stood alone," says Talcott Williams, "as the one man who saw the race problem as a world issue, to be solved by invoking divine justice and divine righteousness." And of him William H. Taft has written: "General Armstrong founded Hampton Institute, and the spirit he put into it continues in the school today. But the man who developed it, the man who has given it its widest influence, and to whom the Negro race and the country owe more than to anyone else, except Booker Washington, was Hollis B. Frissell." "A binder of sections," Edwin A. Alderman calls him, and adds: "Freed from sentimentation, was Hollis B. Frissell." "A binder of sections," quality of our American life by making its African element fit for the disciplines and opportunities of democracy. Hampton Institute, perhaps the most perfectly equipped and conducted industrial institute in the world, will always stand as his lasting monument to his high purpose."

Dr. Frissell was educated for the ministry at Yale, and it is from its President, Arthur T. Hadley, that there comes, perhaps, the best exposition of his work and character. "The education of the Indian and the Negro was a task which the country had long neglected. The vital importance of having it done and done right was recognized by every one. It had become a national problem of the first rank. And under his guidance the problem was being wisely solved. Better than any other institution in the country, Hampton was securing the combination of the ideal and the practical, which is necessary in all good education, and particularly so in the education of races like those with which he dealt. . . . I can speak of him as a lifelong friend, for he and I were in college together. . . . He was more conspicuous for courtesy than for driving power, for wisdom than for knowledge, for scholarly ideals than for scholarly attainments. By these he made a place for himself among his fellow students; by these he made a far larger place for himself in the work of his day and generation. . . . Large as were the results which he accom-

plished at Hampton, I believe that the best lesson which he has left us is the lesson that wisdom is more important than knowledge, and that Christian courtesy can accomplish more things than the world dreams of."

Dr. Frissell was Principal of Hampton Institute from 1893 to 1917.

LILLIE HAMILTON FRENCH

CONSTITUTION

I. ORIGIN AND NAME

This National Society, organized by the American Social Science Association, under a charter granted by Act of Congress January 28th, 1899, shall be known as THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES.

II. OBJECT

The object of this National Institute shall be to promote the study of Social Science and to reward distinguished services rendered to humanity, either by election to the National Institute, or by the bestowal of medals or other insignia.

III. MEMBERSHIP

Qualification for membership shall be notable achievement in the field of Social Science or services performed for the benefit of mankind.

IV. ELECTIONS

1. Candidates for election shall be nominated by a two-thirds vote of the Council, and for election shall require a two-thirds vote of the members present at a regular or special meeting, in person or by proxy.

2. Ten citizens in good standing, of any town or city in the United States may, as a reward for special services rendered by an individual, nominate him as a candidate for election or recognition. They must forward to the Council of the National Institute through the Secretary, a detailed account of the candidate's qualifications and the nature of the service rendered.

3. Honorary members may be elected in the same manner as members under Art. I. They may wear the ribbon of the N. I. S. S., receive medals, or both, as the Council may decide.

4. Officers and Directors of the American Social Science Association shall be *ipso facto* members of the National Institute.

V. OFFICERS

1. The Officers of the National Institute shall consist of a President, as many Vice-Presidents as the Council may from time to time nominate, a Secretary and a Treasurer, who together shall constitute the Council of the Institute.

VI. ELECTION OF OFFICERS

1. Officers shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting.

2. A nominating committee of ten shall be nominated by the President previous to the election.

3. The Council may fill a vacancy at any time by a two-thirds vote.

VII. ANNUAL MEETING

1. The annual meeting of the Institute shall be held the third Friday in January unless otherwise ordered by the Council.
2. Special meetings may be called by the President, by three members of the Council, or by petition of one-fourth of the members of the Institute.

VIII. DUTIES OF OFFICERS

1. It shall be the duty of the President, or in his absence, the senior Vice-President, to preside at all meetings of the Institute or Council.
2. The Secretary shall keep a minute of all meetings of the Institute and of the Council, and shall be the custodian of all records.
3. The Treasurer shall take charge of all the funds of the Institute and shall make disbursements only upon the order of the Council.

IX. ANNUAL DUES

1. The annual dues for members shall be Five Dollars.
2. Honorary members shall pay One Dollar annually, and shall receive four ribbons of the Institute.
3. The Council may at its discretion reduce the dues of any member.
4. By payment of One Hundred Dollars a member may become a life member of the Institute.

X. EXPULSION

Any member may be expelled for misconduct by a two-thirds vote of the Council.

XI. INSIGNIA AND MEDALS

1. The insignia of the NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES shall be a bow of royal purple ribbon with a white bar woven at the extremity of the loops, or a metal and enamel pin of similar design.
2. Medals of membership will bear an eagle surrounded by a wreath of oak and laurel, with the name of the Institute, stellar rays making a background for the device.
3. Presentation medals shall bear the Figure of Fame resting on a Shield, holding wreaths of laurel. The shield to bear the name of the Institute. In the left hand, the figure to hold a palm branch. The reverse to show a torch with a name plate and *Dignus Honore*, the motto of the Institute.

XII. AMENDMENTS

This Constitution may be amended, by a two-thirds vote of the Institute, upon the recommendation of the Council, or upon the request, in writing, of any five members. The Secretary shall be required to send to each member a copy of the proposed amendment, at least three weeks before the meeting at which the proposed amendment is to be considered.

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